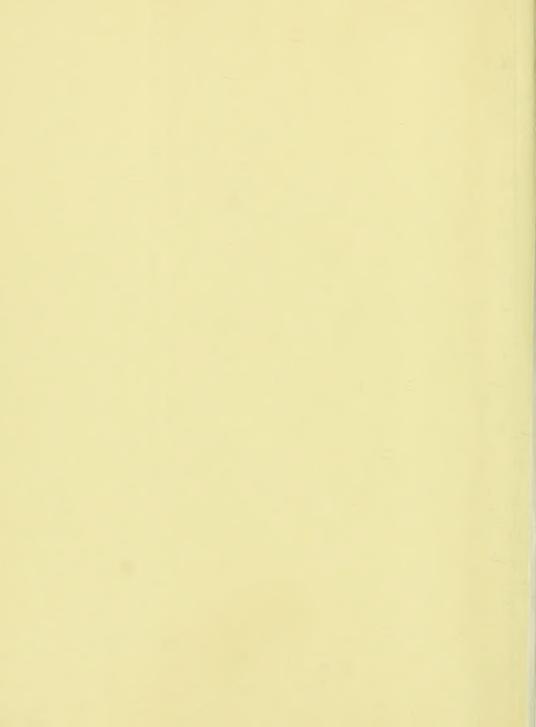
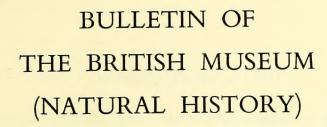


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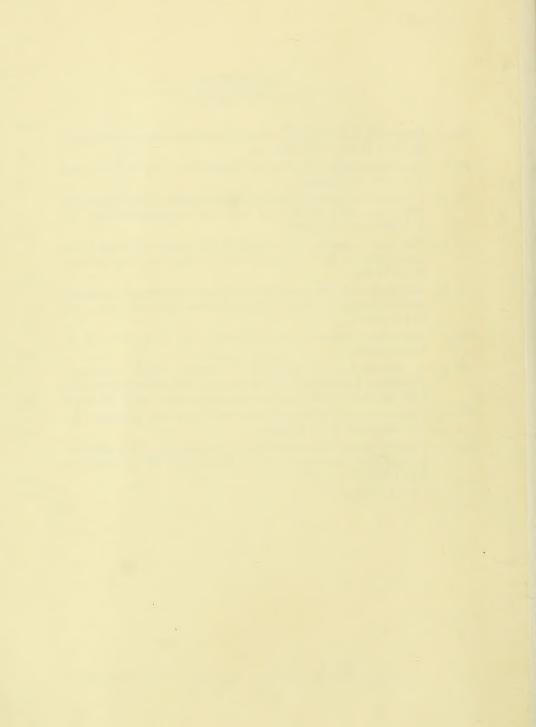
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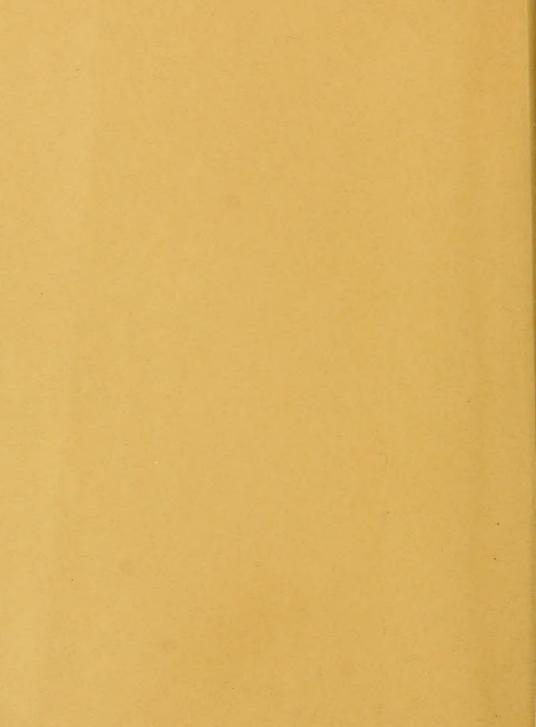
HYOID AND VENTRAL GILL ARCH MUSCULATURE IN OSTEOGLOSSOMORPH FISHES



P. H. GREENWOOD

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PETER HUMPHRY GREENWOOD

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Parts will appear at irregular intervals as they become ready. Volumes will contain about three or four hundred pages, and will not necessarily be completed within one calendar year.

In 1965 a separate supplementary series of longer papers was instituted, numbered serially for each Department.

This paper is Vol. 22 No. 1 of the Zoological series. The abbreviated titles of periodicals cited follow those of the World List of Scientific Periodicals.

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TRUSTEES OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

HYOID AND VENTRAL GILL ARCH MUSCULATURE IN OSTEOGLOSSOMORPH FISHES

By P. H. GREENWOOD

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ABSTRACT

The ventral hyoid and gill arch musculature in several representatives of all osteoglossomorph families is described and compared. The results of this survey show clearly the unusual specializations of the Mormyridae, and add evidence to the suggested relationships of the Mormyridae to the Notopteridae. The Osteo-glossidae and Pantodontidae show a different (and more usual) type of specialization. The Hiodontidae have a basic teleostean pattern in the hyoid muscles, not far removed from the *Amia* pattern.

Based on these and other characters, a new intragroup classification is suggested for the Osteoglossomorpha (including the reduction of the Gymnarchidae to subfamilial status within the Mormyridae).

INTRODUCTION

Although the ventral gill arch and hyoid musculature has been described (with varying degrees of thoroughness) for some osteoglossomorph fishes (Holmquist, 1911; Munshi, 1960; Bishai, 1967; Nelson, 1969), to date there has been no fully comparative account of these muscles; furthermore, only a few species have been investigated.

The present study is an attempt to fill both these gaps, and is part of a continuing investigation of intragroup relationships among the Osteoglossomorpha. That the musculature might provide some information on this subject is suggested by Nelson's (1969) examination of dorsal and ventral gill arch muscles in certain notopterid, mormyrid, osteoglossid and hiodontid species. Nelson's results are somewhat equivocal (and some are modified by my study), but if the hyoid musculature is also taken into account, a rather different picture emerges.

Nomenclature. For the gill arch muscles I have followed the nomenclature used by Nelson (1967 and 1969) which, in turn, was based on the terminology of Vetter

(1878) and Edgeworth (1935).

The hyoid muscles provide something of a nomenclatural problem. The major muscle connecting the hyoid bar with the lower jaw is generally called either protractor hyoideus or geniohyoideus. (See Holmquist, 1911; Dietz, 1912, Edgeworth, 1928 and 1935; Munshi, 1960, and Osse, 1969 for discussions of this problem). It is clear that on grounds of homology and ontogeny (Edgeworth, op. cit.) the muscle should not be called a geniohyoideus in teleost fishes.

Associated with this muscle there is usually a much smaller, transverse muscle, the so-called intermandibularis, which lies anteriorly between the rami of the jaws.

As Holmquist (op. cit.) suggested, and Edgeworth (1928) later demonstrated embryologically, the protractor hyoideus is a compound muscle derived from an intermandibularis component anteriorly (the so-called posterior intermandibularis as distinct from the transverse anterior intermandibularis), and an interhyoideus component posteriorly.

Among the osteoglossomorphs studied, the protractor hyoideus shows, at least superficially, varying degrees of complexity or unity. In many osteoglossoids it appears to be a single muscle, in hiodontids a single muscle obviously of compound origin, and in mormyrids and notopterids a group of distinct muscles. Thus, in osteoglossoids I shall refer to this muscle as the protractor hyoideus, and in the notopterids and mormyrids the components will be named (viz. interhyoideus and posterior intermandibularis). The use of the term "protractor" here is purely

nominal and does not imply any functional attributes (see Osse, op. cit.). In most species the anterior intermandibularis is clearly identifiable despite its great variation in size and area of attachment.

There is general agreement on the nomenclature for that part of the constrictor hyoideus ventralis associated with the branchiostegal rays, namely the hyohyoideus, and that term is used in this paper.

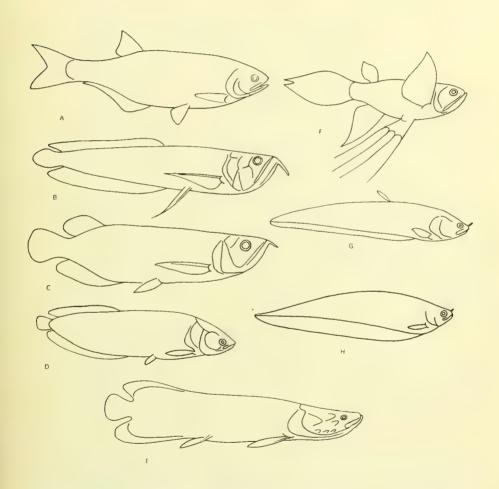


Fig. 1. Outline drawings, not to scale, of: A. Hiodon alosoides. B. Osteoglossum bicirrhosum. C. Scleropages leichardti. D. Heterotis niloticus. E. Arapaima gigas.
 F. Pantodon buchholzi. G. Papyrocranus afer. H. Xenomystus nigri.

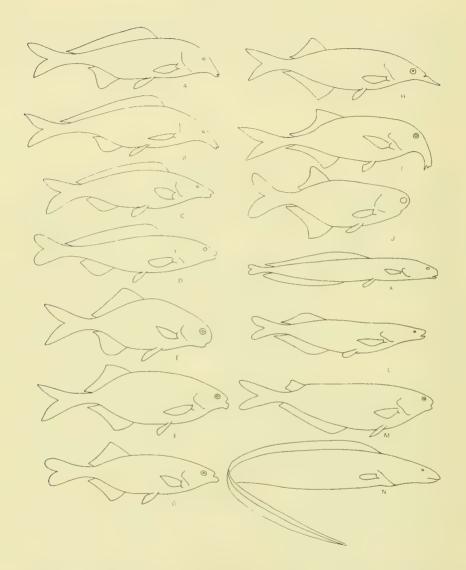


Fig. 2. Outline drawings, not to scale, of various mormyrid species: A. Mormyrus kannume.
B. Mormyrus caschive.
C. Mormyrus lacerda.
D. Mormyrus hasselquisti.
E. Cyphomyrus discorhynchus.
F. Marcusenius cyprinoides.
G. Marcusenius victoriae.
H. Gnathonemus longibarbis.
I. Campylomormyrus elephas.
J. Petrocephalus bane.
K. Isichthys henryi.
L. Mormyrops anguilloides.
M. Hyperopisus bebe.
N. Gymnarchus niloticus.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Dissections were made on the following specimens; for most species dried skeletons or alizarin transparencies were also available.

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Campylomormyrus elephas 1919.9.10:61 154 Petrocephalus bane 1907.12.2:231-232 150, 150 Petrocephalus bane 1905.3.15:1-2 110, 104 Petrocephalus bane unregistered 112, 112 Petrocephalus catostoma 1961.6.21:7-18 76, 73, 72, 68, 60 Isichthys henryi 1958.9.18:5-6 200 Isichthys henryi unregistered 270, 240 Mormyrops deliciosus 1969.3.26:28 235 Mormyrops anguilloides unregistered 205 Hyperopisus bebe 1948.6.30:1-4 190, 145, 140, 140 Hyperopisus bebe 1969.3.25:34 195	Gnathonemus longibarbus	1928.5.24:2	150
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Petrocephalus catostoma 1961.6.21: 7–18 76, 73, 72, 68, 60 Isichthys henryi 1958.9.18: 5–6 200 Isichthys henryi unregistered 270, 240 Mormyrops deliciosus 1969.3.26: 28 235 Mormyrops anguilloides unregistered 205 Hyperopisus bebe 1948.6.30: 1–4 190, 145, 140, 140 Hyperopisus bebe 1969.3.25: 34 195	Petrocephalus bane	1905.3.15 : I-2	110, 104
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Mormyrops anguilloides unregistered 205 Hyperopisus bebe 1948.6.30: 1-4 190, 145, 140, 140 Hyperopisus bebe 1969.3.25: 34 195	Isichthys henryi	unregistered	270, 240
Hyperopisus bebe 1948.6.30: 1-4 190, 145, 140, 140 Hyperopisus bebe 1969.3.25: 34 195	Mormyrops deliciosus	1969.3.26 : 28	235
Hyperopisus bebe 1969.3.25:34 195	Mormyrops anguilloides	unregistered	205
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	Gymnarchus niloticus	1969.3.26:49	370
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Gymnarchus niloticus 1902.11.10 : 56 290	Gymnarchus niloticus	1902.11.10:56	290

B.M.(N.H.) Species Standard length

> register number mm. 1953.7.10:5 400

Gymnarchus niloticus Amia calva unregistered 48 (head only)

Albula vulbes 1949.11.29:1-4 177, 157, 152

Elobs saurus 1961.8.31:45 134

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN TEXT FIGURES

A: Articular Ihyl: interhyoideus muscle, lateral

AIM: anterior intermandibularis muscle division

Ihvvl: interhyoideus, ventrolateral muscle Apn: aponeurosis

articular surface for ceratohyal on IOp: ASCh: interoperculum

> 1st basibranchial (Nelson's [1968] L: ligament from basihval tooth plate

terminology) (to urohyal)

LUh: AT: anterior transversus muscle ligament from urohyal to hypohyals

Bb 1-3: basibranchial, 1st-3rd arch Max: cut end of maxilla BhTp: basihyal tooth plate Mb: mental barbel BrR: MC: branchiostegal ray mental cartilage

BrM: branchiostegal membrane Ob 1-3: obliquus muscle (1st-3rd gillarches)

Bt: basihyal, and its tooth plate, with PhCA and P: external and internal

connective tissue cover pharyngocleithralis muscles

CbI-V: ceratobranchial (arches I-V) PIM: posterior intermandibularis muscle CbM: muscle connecting 4th and 5th lateral muscle bands of posterior PIMm:

ceratobranchials intermandibularis muscle

Ch: ceratohval PIMms: posterior muscle slips of posterior

Chc: cartilaginous part of ceratohyal intermandibularis muscle

ChUh: muscle between ceratohyal and PIMt: tendinous portion of posterior urohyal intermandibularis muscle

CL: cleithrum POp: preoperculum

PrII:

CT: connective tissue surrounding bony process from second hypo-

lateral and ventral edges of basibranchial hyal and its anterior tooth plate 0: quadrate

CTM: connective tissue mass covering R: rectus muscle posteroventral end of basihval RC:

rectus communis muscle tooth plate and articulation of the S: sulcus between posterior intermandibularis and interhyoideus

urohyal dentary

D: Gr gill rakers Sc: lateral line sensory canal in dentary

HaBM: hypaxial body musculature SH: sternohyoideus muscle HbI: hypobranchial (arch 1) SH1: sternohyoideus, lower division

HbII: of second arch SHu: sternohyoideus, upper division Hhy: hyohyoideus muscle SHhv: superior hyohyoideus muscle

Hhya: anterior portion of hyohyoideus subopercular branchiostegal rays SOpBr: muscle T: teeth

Hp: hypohyal

Ihyim:

TIhy: tendon from interhyoideus muscle Hpic: hypohyal (cut through) TIhy 1: tendon from lateral division of IH: interhyoideus muscle interhyoideus muscle

IHhy: inferior hyohyoideus muscle TSH: tendon from sternohyoid

Ihvi: interhyoideus muscle, inner TSHBb: tendon from sternohyoid muscle to

(medial) division second basibranchial

interhyoideus muscle, innermost Uh: urohyal division I-V: gill arches

Family HIODONTIDAE

Hiodon alosoides (Rafinesque)

(Text-fig. 1A)

Protractor hyoideus complex (text-fig. 3). Although at first sight there appears to be only a single muscle forming the floor of the mouth, closer examination of fibre direction shows that it is a compound of: (I) a large posterior sheet (fibres running obliquely anteromedially towards the median aponeurosis) (2) a much smaller, oval sheet anteriorly (fibres transverse to postero-medial) and (3) on each side, joining the former two sheets, a narrow elongate muscle with almost longitudinally directed fibres.

The various components are tightly joined through narrow aponeuroses, and there is some exchange of fibres between the different muscles.

The posterior sheet originates on the ceratohyal, with a few fibres stemming from the bases of the fourth and fifth branchiostegal rays; a fine median aponeurosis is visible along the entire length of the muscle. A sheet of dense connective tissue joins the lateral margins of this muscle to the ventral margin of the dentary on each side. Anteriorly the muscle ends aponeurotically on a broad sheet of connective tissue extending between the rami of the jaw, and lying dorsal to the other muscles of the protractor hyoideus complex. The posterior sheet joins, aponeurotically, the oval median muscle and, on each side, the slender elongate muscles. Thus, it has no direct insertion onto the lower jaw. In contrast, both the median oval and the lateral rectangular muscles attach directly to the median ventral face of each dentary.

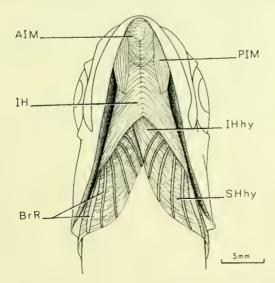


Fig. 3. Hiodon alosoides: ventral hyoid muscles after removal of the skin.

From its innervation (a branch of the hyohyoideus VII nerve) and its origin on the ceratohyal, I would identify the posterior muscle sheet as the conjoined left and right interhyoidei. The anterior complex of three muscles (all innervated by a branch of the mandibular V nerve) would seem to be, from their topographical positions, an unpaired median anterior intermandibularis (the oval muscle) and a posterior intermandibularis divided by the backward extension of the anterior intermandibularis.

There is a striking similarity between the protractor hyoideus complex in *Hiodon* and the condition found in *Amia*, *Elops* and *Megalops* (personal observations on *A. calva*, *E. saurus* and *M. cyprinoides*; also Allis, 1897; and Liem, 1967). In all, there is a single anterior intermandibularis, paired (but medially joined in *Amia* and in the elopoid genera) posterior intermandibulares (the geniohyoideus of Liem *op. cil.*), and an extensive, paired interhyoideus. *Hiodon* differs from the others chiefly in having the interhyoid components more compact and closely associated with each other. Liem (*op. cil.*) describes musculose insertions of all components onto the gular plate, but I was unable to confirm this in my own dissections. Indeed, the muscles seem to be completely free from the gular plate which is attached only to the connective tissue covering the muscles. The protractor hyoideus in all four genera differs markedly from that in *Albula* (personal observations; see also Holmquist, 1911; Liem, *op. cil.*), which represents a relatively specialized condition (see also p. 44 for further comments on *Albula* and *Gymnarchus*).

Hyohyoideus. The superior (interbranchiostegal) part of this muscle is weakly developed, and is largely tendinous (text-fig. 3). The inferior part is much better developed. It originates on the first (i.e. lowermost) branchiostegal ray of each side and inserts, mainly, on the hypobranchial of the opposite side (left muscle lying below the right). From the medial side of each inferior hyphyoideus a short slip of muscle inserts, through a long shared tendon, onto the basihyal plate about half way along its length. The tendon is closely applied to the ventral face of the basihyal plate even before its actual point of insertion.

Sternohyoideus (text-fig. 4). The main, ventrally situated part of this muscle inserts directly onto the urohyal, and has its origin aponeurotically, from the ventral body musculature. No ventral part of the sternohyoid originates on the cleithrum, but there is a smaller dorsal component originating on the horizontal limb of that bone. From about the middle of this upper segment a broad-based, almost completely tendinous slip runs forward and upwards to insert on the basibranchial of the second gill arch. Apart from this link, there is no connection between the sternohyoideus and the branchial skeleton. The possible significance of this tendon in the evolution of the tendon-bones and ventral bony processes associated with the second gill arch in all other osteoglossomorphs (see Greenwood, Rosen, Weitzman, and Myers, 1966; Nelson, 1968) will be discussed later (page 51).

Ventral gill arch muscles (text-fig. 4). Well-developed obliqui muscles are present on the first three gill arches. The rectus communis is a large muscle at its origin from the ceratobranchial of the fourth arch, but it becomes tendinous as it passes below the medial end of the second obliquus, and remains tendinous until its insertion on the second basibranchial. This tendon also attaches to a small process from the

second hypobranchial, and is very closely associated with, but distinct from the ligament joining the first basibranchial to the second hypobranchial. A poorly-defined *rectus* is present between the fourth ceratobranchial and the third hypobranchial; it is barely distinguishable from the larger and laterally situated rectus communis. Well developed *anterior* and *posterior transversi* link the proximal ends of the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials respectively.

External and internal *pharyngocleithrales* are present. The origin of the external division is medial to the sternohyoideus, but the internal muscle originates from the cleithrum at the same level as the sternohyoideus, and superficially resembles a division of that muscle.

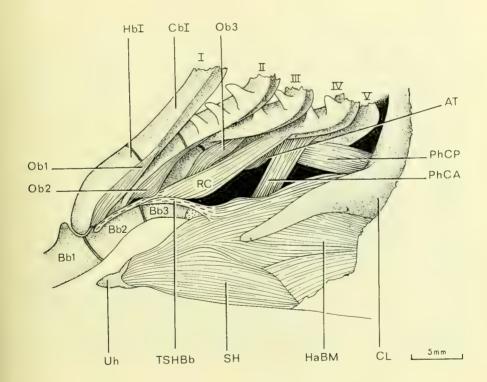


Fig. 4. Hiodon alosoides: ventral gill arch musculature and sternohyoideus in left lateral view.

Family OSTEOGLOSSIDAE

Subfamily OSTEOGLOSSINAE (Nelson, 1968)

Osteoglossum bicirrhosum Vandelli

(Text-fig. 1B)

Protractor hyoidcus: is a stout muscle, unpaired except posteriorly over its origins (on each ceratohyal and, in part, aponeurotically from the inferior hyohyoideus of each side). It inserts, through a very short tendinous portion, onto the anterior part of the dentary around the symphysis. This anterior section of the muscle is split, horizontally, by the passage of a stout, transversely aligned anterior intermandibularis; that part of the protractor lying above the intermandibularis is thicker.

There is no median longitudinal aponeurosis, but there is a distinct tendinous inscription running transversely at about the middle of the muscle.

Holmquist (1911) and, later, Edgeworth (1935, fig. 277) described the muscle as divided horizontally into a broader, dorsal, interhyoideus portion, and a narrower, ventral (and medial) posterior intermandibularis portion; both authors also figure the transverse inscription. Despite careful dissection and probing, I could not find any such horizontal division in the muscle. Indeed, in the two specimens I dissected (28.6 and 34.0 cm standard length) the muscle could better be interpreted as being transversely and vertically divided. For example, that section lying anterior to the inscription is innervated by a branch of the mandibular V nerve, but most of the muscle behind the inscription is supplied by a branch of the hyohyoideus VII. This would seem to imply that the anterior part is derived from the posterior intermandibularis, and the posterior part from the interhyoideus However, since the inscription does not penetrate deeply into the muscle (i.e. it is not a complete, platelike aponeurosis) and because the branch of the trigeminal nerve extends behind it, I would not be prepared to delimit the component parts on adult morphology alone. My uncertainty is reinforced by the condition of the muscle in Pantodon buchholzi (see page 16), where it seems to approach closely the condition described by Holmquist for Osteoglossum bicirrhosum.

Hyohyoidcus. The superior portion (between the branchiostegal rays) is moderately developed. The inferior portion, although narrow, is fully muscular. It originates entirely from the first branchiostegal ray and has a tendinous insertion mainly onto the hypohyal of the opposite side; a few fibres, however, have a tendinous insertion onto the hypohyal of their own side. (It may be noted that Holmquist [1911, fig. 11] shows the right inferior hyohyoideus overlapping the left, but in all specimens I have examined [and in all other osteoglossids] left overlaps right).

Sternohyoideus (text-fig. 5). The greater part of this muscle originates on the dorsal surface of the horizontal limb of the cleithrum; a small part stems from the anterior tip of the conjoined cleithra. The sternohyoideus inserts onto the urohyal, but that part passing below the first gill arch is closely attached to the hypobranchial

by a thick connective tissue fascia. The muscle is also closely attached to the inner aspect of the ventrally directed bony processes on the second hypobranchials; each process is, however, entirely superficial to the muscle.

Ventral gill arch muscles (text-fig. 5). Obliqui muscles (linking cerato- and hypobranchial elements) are present on the first three gill arches. A small rectus muscle connects the fourth ceratohyal with the third hypobranchial.

No rectus communis is developed.

The proximal ends of the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials are joined, respectively, by the *anterior and posterior transversi*. The fifth ceratobranchial is also connected to the cleithrum by the strong external and internal *pharyngocleithrales*. The internal pharyngocleithralis is subdivided into a narrow posterior and a much broader anterior part. Both pharyngocleithrales have their origins medial to the sternohyoideus.

Scleropages leichardti Günther (Text-fig. 1C)

In most details, the musculature of *S. leichardti* is identical with that described for *Osteoglossum bicirrhosum*. Comments made above on the morphology of the protractor hyoideus muscle and its components apply equally to the muscle in *Scleropages*.

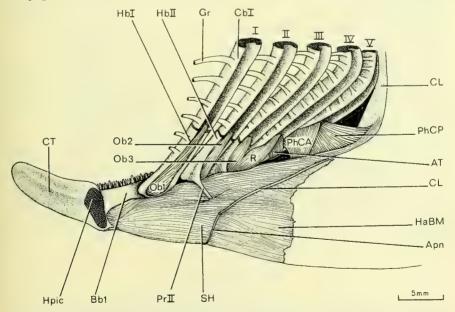


Fig. 5. Scleropages leichardti: ventral gill arch muscles and sternohyoideus in left lateral view. The hypohyal has been partly cut away.

Among the ventral gill arch muscles, the only intergeneric difference noted was that in *Scleropages* the proximal end of the rectus muscle is fused with the hypobranchial head of the obliquus of the third arch (text-fig. 5).

Subfamily HETEROTINAE (Nelson, 1968)

Heterotis niloticus (Cuvier)

(Text-fig. 1D)

Protractor hyoidcus. This stout muscle originates on the ceratohyal and lower three branchiostegal rays of each side, but is a single element over its anterior half. It inserts directly, through short left and right heads, on either side of the dentary symphysis. Slightly anterior to the point of tusion between left and right halves, there is a very distinct transverse inscription; no other division of the muscle can be detected by dissection. The anterior part of the protractor is supplied by a branch of the mandibular V nerve, the posterior part by a branch of the hyohyoideus VII. The latter branch emerges from the medial side of the branchiostegal membrane at the base of the first ray; the main nerve continues forward, and supplies the inferior hyohyoideus muscle.

Heterotis is unusual in having a strong connective tissue link between the protractor hyoideus and the hypohyals (at a point near the union of the protractor's two halves).

A small and narrow *anterior intermandibularis* lies dorsal to the protractor hyoideus and does not pass through any part of it (cf. Osteoglossum and Scleropages).

Sternohyoideus. This stout muscle originates almost entirely from the dorsal surface of the horizontal limb of the cleithrum; a few ventral fibres stem from the anterior tip of that bone. It inserts onto the urohyal but is also firmly attached to the hypobranchial of the second arch and, less intimately, to the first hypobranchial as well. The ventral processes from the second hypobranchials are partly buried in the sternohyoid.

Ventral gill arch muscles. The most outstanding feature of these muscles is the development of a rectus communis from the fourth ceratobranchial to the base of the process on the second hypobranchial; there is also a tendinous connection between this muscle and the third hypobranchial.

In all other respects the gill arch muscles (including the rectus) are like those of Osteoglossum and Scleropages. The pharyngocleithrales of Heterotis, however, are simpler since the internal muscle is undivided.

Arapaima gigas (Schinz)

(Text-fig. 1E)

Protractor hyoideus: is a short, largely paired muscle originating from the ceratohyal and the basal parts of the second and third branchiostegal rays. Only about the anterior third of the muscle is unpaired, the two halves meeting along a weak aponeurosis. Slightly anterior to this junction there is a transverse tendinous inscription.

The protractor inserts, through left and right musculose heads, on either side of the dentary symphysis. A small and narrow *anterior intermandibularis* passes through the muscle a little posterior to its insertion.

It is impossible, by inspection or dissection, to determine the extent of the protractor's component muscles, nor is it possible to determine the manner of their fusion.

Hyohyoideus. The superficial part is moderately well-developed and largely muscular. The inferior division is short and relatively stout; it inserts through a long tendon onto the hypohyal of the opposite side.

Sternohyoideus. Undoubtedly the sternohyoideus is the most characteristic muscle of Arapaima gigas (see text-fig. 6). It is divided, horizontally, into a small anterior and dorsal division, and a much larger unpaired ventral part. The latter originates (as is usual) on the horizontal limb of the cleithrum, and inserts on either side of the peculiarly shaped urohyal. In cross-section, this bone is shaped like an inverted T, with the arms extended to such a degree that the anterior half of the lower sternohyoid is completely covered by bone. A broad ligament from either side of the urohyal attaches it, ventrally, to the ceratohyals and hypohyals. The small ventral process of the second hypohyal barely contacts the dorsal part of this ventral sternohyoid division. Indeed, the process in Arapaima is the shortest found in any osteoglossid, and has the least intimate contact with the sternohyoid.

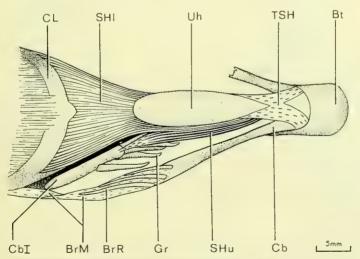


Fig. 6. Arapaima gigas: ventral view of the sternohyoid, to show its upper and lower divisions and their relationship with the urohyal, cleithrum and first hypobranchial. Semi-schematic; the lower jaw is not depicted. Cb=ceratohyal.

The dorsal division of the sternohyoid is paired. Each half originates on the ventral face of the first hypobranchial, and extends over almost the entire length of that bone (thus underlying the first obliquus muscle). The left and right halves meet, aponeurotically, in the midline; the broad tendon originating at this union inserts, somewhat asymmetrically, on the inner aspect of the ceratohyals near their tips. Although some part of the tendon inserts on the right ceratohyal, by far the greater part is attached to the left bone.

No other osteoglossid shows such clear-cut subdivision of the sternohyoid, or such asymmetry in its insertion. In fact, insertion of even part of the sternohyoid onto the ceratohyals is most unusual in teleosts. Nevertheless, it is difficult to identify the upper division of this muscle in *Arapaima* as other than part of the sternohyoideus. That other osteoglossids have a close association of the sternohyoid with the first and second hypobranchials, and that there is an incipient division of the muscle in *Heterotis* (see p. 14), all seem to support the recognition of a divided sternohyoid in *Arapaima*.

Ventral gill arch muscles: in Arapaina have the typical osteoglossid pattern; there is no rectus communis.

Obliqui are present on the first three arches; the obliquus of the third arch is closely associated with the well-developed rectus running almost in the midline from the fourth ceratobranchial to the third hypobranchial. Anterior and posterior transversi are present, as are stout and undivided internal and external pharyngocleithrales.

Family PANTODONTIDAE

Pantodon buchholzi Peters

(Text-fig. 1F)

Protractor hyoidcus (text-fig. 7): is a single muscle over its anterior half, but is paired posteriorly, with the left and right halves originating on the ceratohyal and lower three branchiostegal rays of their side.

The muscle is marked by a transverse inscription at the point where the two halves unite. At this point, the unpaired portion is visibly separable into a broad dorsal section (inserting on either side of the dentary symphysis) and a much narrower, more compact, median and ventral part which inserts, tendinously, onto the symphysis itself. Slight pressure with a probe along the horizontal sulcus demarcating the two parts separates them back to the level of the transverse inscription. Beyond this point there is considerable interchange between the parts, and the sulcus itself is no longer distinct.

A well-developed, stout, transverse *anterior intermandibularis* lies between, and separates, the dorsal and ventral parts of the protractor anteriorly.

In many respects, the condition of the protractor hyoideus in *Pantodon* resembles that described for *Osteoglossum* by Holmquist (op. cit.) and Edgeworth (1935); it will be recalled that I found a rather different arrangement in that genus (see p. 12).

Pantodon differs from Holmquist's description of Osteoglossum in that the muscles cannot be separated posteriorly beyond the transverse inscription. Holmquist and Edgeworth identify the entire length of the median, ventral section of the muscle in Osteoglossum as a protractor hyoideus (i.e. a posterior intermandibu aris in the terminology used here), and the overlying, broader part as the interhyoideus component.

Identifying the components of the protractor hyoideus in *Pantodon* is not easy, particularly since the innervation cannot readily be traced within the muscle. Judging from the position of the upper and lower insertions, and from the fact that the ventromedial segment is so clearly circumscribed, I would identify it as the posterior intermandibularis; the much larger muscle above, lateral to and behind it would then be the interhyoideus portion. In other words, a situation like that in the protractor hyoideus of *Salmo salar* (see Holmquist, 1911, and Dietz, 1912).

Hyohyoideus. Both the superior and inferior divisions are well-developed, the latter originating on the first branchiostegal ray, and inserting tendinously on the hypohyal of the opposite side.

Sternohyoideus. The lower third of this muscle originates on a broad aponeurosis with the ventral body musculature; the remainder stems from the dorsal surface of the horizontal limb of the cleithrum. Anteriorly, the sternohyoid inserts around the small urohyal which is completely embedded in the muscle. The medial face of

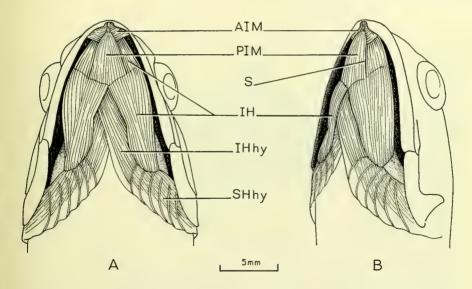


Fig. 7. Pantodon buchholzi: ventral hyoid musculature. A. In ventral view. B. In oblique ventro-lateral view. The transverse inscription (aponeurosis) is shown, but not labelled, in both views.

each process from the second hypobranchial is firmly but superficially attached to the sternohyoid, which is also closely attached by connective tissue to the ventral side of the first hypobranchial.

Ventral gill arch muscles. As in Heterotis (but not other osteoglossids) a distinct rectus communis is present; the small rectus from the fourth ceratobranchial to the third hypobranchial is distinct from the rectus communis but is closely applied to it. Obliqui are present on the first three arches; anterior and posterior transversi are well developed, and the pharyngocleithrales are simple but relatively stout.

Family NOTOPTERIDAE

Munshi has given a detailed description of the cranial muscles in the Asiatic species Notopterus chitala, and Nelson (1969) has listed the branchial muscles of the same species. In view of this previous work, I have concentrated on the two African species, Papyrocranus afer and Xenomystus nigri (see also Greenwood, 1963 and Nelson op. cit.). Some comments on Munshi's description of the hyoid muscles in N. chitala, and a general comparison of the hyoid and gill musculature in the three genera follow the separate accounts for Papyrocranus and Xenomystus.

Papyrocranus afer (Günther)

(Text-fig. 1G)

Ventral hyoid musculature (text-fig. 8). The most superficial (i.e. ventral) muscle has its origin, on each side, equally from the ceratohyal and from the basal part of branchiostegal rays 2 to 6. The two halves of this muscle join to form a single element over about the anterior half of their length.

Anteriorly, the muscle inserts onto the dentary through dorsal and ventral heads; the single, narrow and tendinous ventral insertion is onto the symphysis, while the broader, more musculose dorsal insertion is double and lies on either side of the symphysis.

This ventral muscle is innervated solely by a branch of the mandibular V nerve. Careful dissection shows that no branch of the hyphyoideus VII runs to it (see below under *interhyoideus*).

With respect to its innervation, the muscle differs from the topographically similar muscle (the protractor hyoideus) in osteoglossid and pantodontid fishes. Munshi (op. cit.) identifies the muscle in Notopterus as a posterior intermandibularis and I would agree with his identification, both on the grounds of the muscle's innervation solely from the trigeminal nerve, and because distinct interhyoideus muscles (innervated from the facialis nerve) are also present. It will be recalled

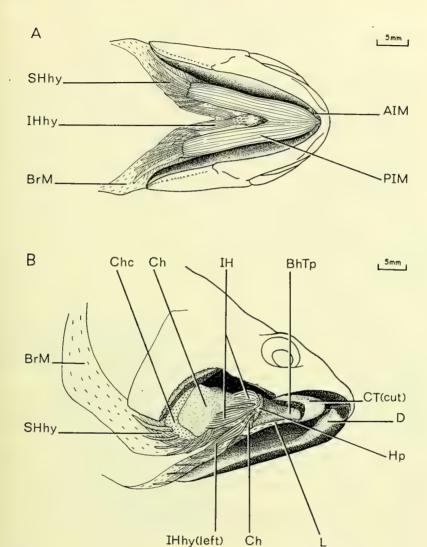


FIG. 8. Papyrocranus afer: A. ventral hyoid muscles, after removal of the skin. B. ventro-lateral view of head to show the interhyoideus muscles. The right half of the lower jaw removed, as is the cheek and jaw musculature of that side.

that in osteoglossoids the protractor hyoideus has a double (trigeminal and facialis) innervation, and that in these fishes no separate interhyoideus is present.

A small and weak anterior intermandibularis muscle lies between the dorsal and ventral insertions of the posterior intermandibularis. Its fibres are transversely orientated, and attach to the median face of the dentary on either side of the symphysis.

Interhyoideus (text-fig. 8). This paired muscle appears to be further divided on each side into a shallow lower portion, and a deeper upper part (see fig. 8B). Anteriorly, however, the two parts have a common tendinous insertion onto the dorsal surface of the hypohyal of the same side. The upper division originates entirely from the ceratohyal, but the lower part originates from the ventral margin of the ceratohyal and, in minor part, from the heads of the first two branchiostega. rays. The interhyoideus is innervated by a branch of the hyohyoideus VII nervel This nerve enters the lower muscle division after emerging from behind the branchiostegal rays and passing along the upper margin of the first ray.

Hyohyoideus. The superior division is rather poorly developed, and is almost completely tendinous. The inferior part is also tendinous but has its medial third strongly muscular (fig. 8B). This muscular section originates from the distal third of the first branchiostegal ray. The whole inferior hyohyoid inserts, tendinously, on the hypohyal of the opposite side (the left muscle passing ventral to the right).

Sternohyoideus (text-fig. 9). The large sternohyoideus originates entirely from the dorsal surface of the horizontal limb of the cleithrum. Ventrally, part of the muscle inserts, through a pair of tendons, onto the hypohyals and the anteroventral tip of each ceratohyal (a most unusual arrangement; see also Arapaima, page 15). However, the bulk of the sternohyoid inserts onto and around the small urohyal which is completely embedded in the muscle. (It should be noted that a pair of strong ligaments from the ventral face of the basihyal tooth-plate also attach to the urohyal and are, in consequence, partly covered by the sternohyoid.)

The median face and posterior margin of each ventral process (tendon bones) from the second basibranchial are firmly but superficially attached to the lateral face of the sternohyoid on each side. Anterior to this point the muscle closely approaches the first basibranchial but is not attached to it.

Ventral gill arch muscles (text-fig. 9) Well-developed obliqui are present on the first three gill arches; the muscles of all three arches insert on the respective ceratobranchial, but those on the first and second arch have a double origin, from the hypo- and basibranchial.

A distinct *rectus* runs from the third hypobranchial to the ceratobranchial of the fourth arch where it comes into close contact with the head of a stout *rectus communis* connecting that arch with the base of the ventral process (tendon bone) articulating with the second basibranchial.

The prox mal ends of the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials are joined, respectively, by the broad anterior and posterior transversi.

The external and internal *pharyngocleithrales* are well-developed, simple muscles whose origins lie medial to the sternohyoideus.

Xenomystus nigri (Günther)

(Text-fig. 1H)

In all major details the musculature of this species is like that of *Papyrocranus afer*. The most noticeable differences may be listed briefly.

Posterior intermandibularis. The origin is mainly from the ceratohyal, with only about one quarter stemming from the first branchiostegal ray. It inserts through a single broad head, an arrangement possibly correlated with the much weaker and rather ill-defined anterior intermanibularis in this species. As in Papyrocranus the posterior and anterior intermandibulares are innervated by a branch of the mandibular V nerve.

Hyohyoideus. The inferior divisions fuse in the midline before inserting onto the hypohyals.

Interhyoideus: in this species is a pair of undivided muscles fused anteroventrally, and inserting onto the hypohyals through a short tendon which wraps around the face of these bones.

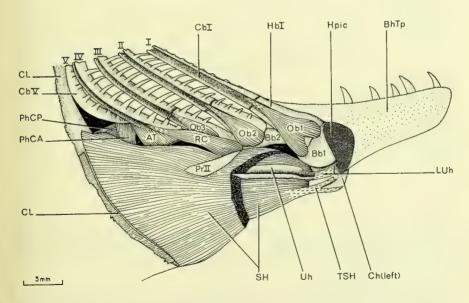


Fig. 9. Papyrocranus afer: lateral view of gill arch muscles and sternohyoideus. The anterior part of the sternohyoid has been dissected away on the right side to show the embedded urohyal. The tendon (TSH) inserts onto the right ceratohyal (removed) and right hypohyal (partly removed).

Gill arch muscles. I was unable to locate a separate rectus in Xenomystus. The rectus communis is present and large; like the obliqui it appears to be relatively larger in this genus. As in Papyrocranus, the obliqui of the first two arches originate from both the hypo- and the basibranchials.

PAPYROCRANUS AND XENOMYSTUS COMPARED WITH NOTOPTERUS

Basically, the musculature in the three genera is very similar (see Munshi, 1960 for Notopterus). In the two Notopterus species I examined (N. chitala and N. kapirat), the interhyoideus of each side is undivided (i.e. like that of Xenomystus); in N. kapirat it is indistinguishable ventrally from the upper, anterior part of the inferior hyohyoideus. According to Munshi (op. cit.) the left and right interhyoidei of N. chitala fuse medially. But, in his figure the muscles are shown as fan-like, horizontally disposed structures continuous with the inferior hyohyoidei, and running obliquely towards the midline; here the posterior portion of the left interhyoideus overlaps that of the right muscle. In the single specimen I dissected, the interhyoidei are vertically aligned (as in the other species considered), insert separately and are quite distinct from the inferior hyohyoidei. In other words, a situation identical with that found in Papyrocranus.

I would contest Munshi's identification of the muscle running from each basibranchial process (tendon bone) to the urohyal. This he calls the pharyngohyoideus (= rectus communis in the nomenclature used above). However, the figure shows the muscle as only partly distinct from the sternohyoideus (Munshi's rectus cervicus) below it, and no fibres are shown connecting with the upper posterior face of the tendon bones (as do those of the rectus communis). In the specimen I have examined (as in N. kapirat, Papyrocranus and Xenomystus also) it is not possible to separate the fibres attached to the tendon bone from those of the underlying sternohyoid. In contrast, the muscle I have identified as a rectus communis is distinguishable from the sternohyoideus even at its insertion onto the tendon bone where the two muscles are closely apposed. Thus it seems likely that the muscle Munshi identifies as a rectus communis is, in fact, part of the sternohyoideus.

Family MORMYRIDAE

The bauplan of the hyoid and gill arch musculature is remarkably constant in the Mormyridae, despite the great range of variation in head shape and jaw form of these fishes. The more outstanding features of the mormyrid musculature may be summarized as follows:—

- (i) The muscles of the *protractor hyoideus complex* show the greatest degree of individuality and subdivision of any osteoglossomorph fishes; the interhyoideus muscles are enlarged and insert onto the lower jaw.
- (ii) There is considerable hypertrophy of the *hyohyoideus* with the consequent loss of distinct superior and inferior divisions; the left and right halves of the muscle

join medially and the muscle is attached to the interopercula and ceratohyals as well as to the urohyal. This specialized musculature is associated with the peculiar branchial specializations of all mormyrids. For example, there is no discrete and expandible branchiostegal membrane, the rays being buried in the hyohyoideus, and the whole mass covered by skin continuous with that of the body; in consequence, the opercluar aperture is greatly restricted and lies entirely above the branchiostegal rays.

(iii) In the ventral gill arch musculature the *obliqui* have extensive areas of attachment, and the weakly developed *pharyngocleithrales* lie external to the sternohyoideus. The anterior part of the *sternohyoideus* is closely associated with the corresponding ventral elements of the gill arches, although there is never a direct musculose or tendinous insertion onto these bones.

Surprisingly, little attention has been paid to the cephalic and branchial musculature of mormyroid fishes. Holmquist (1911), drawing on his investigation of the hyoid musculature in *Gymnarchus niloticus*, noted certain peculiarities, but he was unable to extend his observations because of lack of comparative material. Nelson (1969) briefly commented on the gill arch muscles in Mormyridae and compared these with those of other osteoglossomorphs. The most comprehensive treatment is that of Bishai (1967) on *Mormyrus caschive*. Unfortunately, the nomenclature used by this author makes direct comparison very difficult, and I suspect that his description of the gill arch musculature is erroneous in many respects (see below, page 28).

Since the bauplan of the hyoid and ventral gill arch muscles is so similar in all mormyrids, I shall give a detailed description for one species only; deviations from

this pattern will be noted for the other species examined.

Mormyrus kannume Forsk.

(Text-fig. 2A)

The snout in this species is slender, moderately decurved, produced and tubular, with the mouth small and terminal.

Posterior intermandibularis (text-fig. IoA): is a fairly thick muscle with originates, aponeurotically, over the anterior part of the hyohyoideus, and directly from the interoperculum of each side. It inserts through two muscular heads on either side of the mental cartilage (that is, it does not attach directly to the dentary). At about its midpoint there is a faint, longitudinal aponeurosis which extends anteriorly; posterior to this point both halves of the muscle are contiguous medially throughout their lengths. The posterior intermandibularis is broad and extends laterally almost to the ventral margin of each dentary, to which it is attached by a connective tissue sheet.

Anterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 10B): lies immediately above the posterior division. It is a relatively thin but expansive muscle extending longitudinally from the level of the posterior interopercular margin to a little behind the mental cartilage.

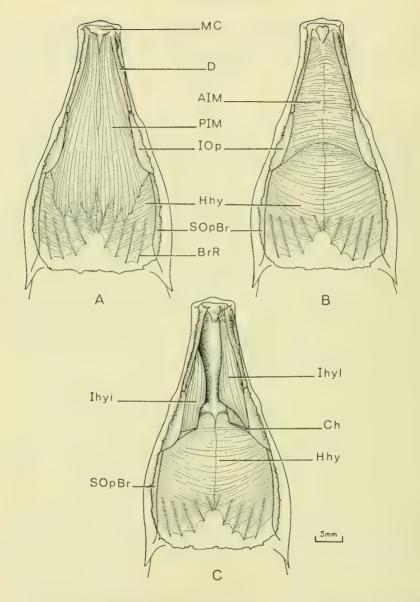


Fig. 10. Mormyrus kannume: ventral hyoid muscles. A. After removal of the skin. B. Posterior intermandibularis removed, C. Anterior intermandibularis removed; right lateral division of the interhyoideus muscle removed.

Laterally it inserts, directly, onto the interoperculum, articular and the dentary. All its fibres are transversely arranged; there is a faint but distinct median aponeurosis extending along the entire length of the muscle.

Both the anterior and posterior intermandibularis are innervated by a branch of the mandibular V nerve.

Interhyoideus (text-fig. 10C). A bilaterally paired muscle originating on the hyoid arch but inserting on the medial face of each dentary and articular, is identified as the interhyoideus because of its origin (the epi- and ceratohyal) and because of its innervation (a branch of the hyohyoideus VII).

The lateral (*i.e.* outer) muscle of each pair is the larger; it has a narrow origin from the upper part of the ceratohyal and part of the epihyal, and inserts tendinously onto the ventral margin of the dentary immediately lateral to the symphysis.

The inner and smaller muscle has a much wider origin (entirely from the ceratohyal) ventral to that of the lateral division. It inserts on the medial face of the dentary, and also the articular, considerably behind and above that of the outer division.

Hyohyoideus (text-fig. 10): is a stout, thick muscle with the left and right halves meeting medially along a fine aponeurosis. The branchiostegal rays are almost completely embedded in muscle; it is impossible to recognize separate superior and inferior divisions. The posterior part of the hyohyoideus is attached to the sub-opercular branchiostegal rays, the middle section to the interoperculum, and the forward part to the anterior face and ventral margin of the ceratohyal laterally; medially the muscle is attached to the urohyal. All these connections are musculose.

Externally, the hyphyoideus is covered by skin which is continuous with that of the body and lower surface of the jaw. In other words, there is no separate branchiostegal membrane. Internally, the medial face of the hyphyoideus is bound to the overlying ventral body musculature by an extensive connective tissue union.

Sternohyoideus: is a large muscle originating mainly from the dorsal face of the horizontal cleithrum, but with a small ventral portion continuous with the hypaxial body muscles. The sternohyoid inserts on the urohyal but its antero-dorsal section is closely associated, through a connective tissue fascia, with the second basibranchial. The ventral processes from the second hypobranchials are, proximally, embedded in the sternohyoid; distally they lie outside the muscle but closely attached to its lateral face.

Ventral gill arch musculature (text-fig. II). Well-developed obliqui are present on the first three gill arches; all are broad muscles extending onto the ceratobranchial well beyond its articulation with the small hypobranchial. From the first obliquus there is a distinct postero-medially directed slip of muscle which inserts onto the second hypobranchial. From the second obliquus a similar slip runs to, and inserts on, the second basibranchial. The third obliquus links only the cerato- and hypobranchial of its arch.

In mormyrids the upper two branchiostegal rays are blade-like bones which have lost their articulation with the hyoid arch. Instead, the two bones are firmly attached to one another, and the upper bone is immovably attached to the lower margin of the operculum. Together, these two rays form an apparently immovable pseudosuboperculum.

A moderately developed *rectus communis* extends between the fourth ceratobranchial and the proximal end of the ventral process from the second hypobranchial. The muscle is closely applied to, but distinct from, the dorsal margin of the sternohyoideus. A short, broad and nearly triangular muscle joins the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials near their proximal ends. I cannot be certain about the identity of this muscle—It could be a displaced obliquus of the fourth arch or, more likely, part of this obliquis since there is a large transversus associated with the arch (all this assuming that obliqui are, primitively, associated with each arch; see Nelson, 1967).

The anterior transversus is moderately broad; it links the ventral tips of the fourth ceratobranchials. The posterior transversus runs obliquely forward so that it has the shape of a V, the apex inserting on the cartilaginous block lying between the ventral tips of the third and fourth ceratobranchials (the fourth basibranchial of Nelson, 1968). The arms of the V are closely applied to the ventral surface of each ceratobranchial

HbI CbT Ob2 RC Ob3 CbM -SH PhCP PhCA _CL -Pr∏ HaBM 5mm SH HbII BhTp AsCH

Fig. 11. Mormyrus kannume: ventral gill arch muscles and sternohyoideus in left lateral view. Not all the connective tissue surrounding the basihyal and urohyal has been dissected away.

External and internal *pharyngocleithrales* are present, but are not strongly developed. An unusual feature of these muscles in all mormyrids is their origin external to the sternohyoideus Both divisions, but especially the external one, have a deep and broad insertion on the fifth ceratobranchial.

Mormyrus caschive Linn.

(Text-fig. 2B)

Bishai i(1967) has given a detailed account of the cranial and branchial muscles in this species—Unfortunately, I have been unable to dissect a specimen, but since in osteological and other features *M. caschive* is very similar to *M. kannume*, it seems reasonable to assume that the musculature would also be similar.

Thus, it is surprising to find a number of departures from the *M. kannume* condition in the ventral musculature of *M. cashive* as described by Bishai. Because muscle nomenclature used by this author differs from that usually employed, and because of the anatomical differences noted, I shall give a list of synonyms for the muscles involved and also comment on the apparent discrepancies between my observations on *M. kannume* and Bishai's on *M. caschive*.

In general, I would agree with Bishai's description of the superficial hyoid muscles. His depressor labii inferioris muscle is my posterior intermandibularis, and his intermandibularis is my anterior intermandibularis. The posterior intermandibularis of M. caschive (cf. text-fig. 10A with Bishai's fig. 4) is narrower anteriorly and seems to extend further posteriorly, covering the entire hyohyoideus (i.e. the interbranchiostegalis muscle of Bishai).

There is also substantial agreement in the arrangement of the deep ventral muscles (Bishai's geniohyoideus internus and externus, which are my inner and outer divisions of the interhyoideus). According to Bishai's figure 5, there are three divisions of this muscle, the innermost of which is not labelled. However, I suspect that the object which Bishai has labelled "geniohyoideus externus" is, in fact, a cut section of skin (or even cheek muscle); further, it seems that his "internus" muscle should be labelled "externus", and that the short unidentified innermost muscle is the internal division of his geniohyoid series (i.e. my interhyoid series).

The same figure also shows a condition of the sternohyoideus which I find difficult to accept. However, I think the figure is explicable when one considers Bishai's description of the ventral branchial muscles (op. cit., page 21, and fig. 8). Here the author describes three large muscles, originating on each side from the cleithrum, and inserting on the urohyal and the ventral processes of the second hypobranchials. These muscles are identified by Bishai as "anterior portions of the pharyngoclavicularis muscle". Apart from an abuse of the term pharyngoclavicularis for muscles with these topographical relationships, it seems that Bishai failed to recognize their true identity as parts of the sternohyoideus (see page 25).

Bishai's *pharyngocleithralis posterior* apparently consists of both the external and internal divisions of this muscle.

I cannot find separate muscles in *M. kannume* corresponding to Bishai's *pharyngo-arcualis anterior*, and *obliquus ventralis anterior* and *posterior* (of the first gill arch, see his fig. 8). Indeed, it seems that he has misinterpreted the double-headed condition of the first obliquus muscle which inserts, mainly, on the first hypobranchial but also has a slip passing to the second hypobranchial (see page 25).

Bishai does not describe a rectus communis muscle but his fourth obliquus ventralis superioris could well be part of a rectus communis (viz. that portion near its origin

on the fourth arch and below the third arch).

Likewise, Bishai's obliquus ventralis superioris 5 seems to correspond to the small muscle, present in most mormyrids, which links the ceratobranchials of the fourth and fifth arches (see page 26).

The anterior transversus (i.e., the fourth transversus ventralis of Bishai) requires no comment, but I believe that Bishai has misidentified the posterior transversus, and called it the *pharyngoarcualis posterior* (see page 51 for a discussion of the posterior transversus in mormyrids).

Mormyrus lacerda Casteln.

(Text-fig. 2C)

In this species the snout is relatively short, broad and but slightly decurved; the mouth is broad and terminal in position.

With few exceptions, the musculature is like that of Mormyrus kannume.

The anterior intermandibularis inserts onto the dentary and angular only; over its posterior third it fails to reach the lateral margins of the head. However, its posterolateral tips are attached to the ceratohyal near the origin of the interhyoideus.

The posterior intermandibularis, relative to that of M. kannume, is somewhat less

substantial over its posterior half.

The pharyngocleithrales are complex. There are three distinct but contiguous heads on the cleithrum, all originating lateral to the sternohyoideus. At about the midpoint between girdle and ceratobranchial, the three separate muscles fuse, become tendinous and then, as a single element, become muscular again. Presumably this muscle should be considered as fused external and internal pharyngocleithrales.

Mormyrus hasselquisti Val.

(Text-fig. 2D)

In this species the snout is short, broad and but very slightly decurved. The mouth is broad and terminal.

The musculature of M. hasselquisti is virtually identical with that of M. lacerda (text-fig. 12). The anterior half of the posterior intermandibularis is, however, not quite so broad. It is separated from the ventral margin of the articular and dentary by a distinct connective tissue band through which the underlying anterior intermandibularis can be seen.

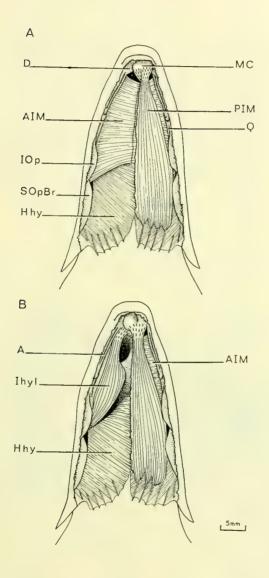


Fig. 12. Mormyrus hasselquisti: ventral hyoid muscles. A. Right half of posterior intermandibularis removed. B. Right half of the anterior intermandibularis removed.

Cyphomyrus discorhynchus (Peters)

(Text-fig. 2E)

The snout in this species is short, broad and strongly decurved, with the small mouth situated subterminally and its opening directed somewhat ventrally.

The genus *Cyphomyrus*, once part of the large and probably artificial assemblage of species in the genus *Marcusenius*, was separated out by Myers (1960).

There are several small but none the less characteristic features in the musculature of *C. discorhynchus*.

The posterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 13) is well developed, but anteriorly it does not extend to the lateral margins of the lower jaw. That section of the muscle originating on the interoperculum has its fibres more closely packed than are those in the larger section originating from an aponeurosis over the hyohyoideus muscle. The two parts of the intermandibularis can be separated easily by gentle traction.

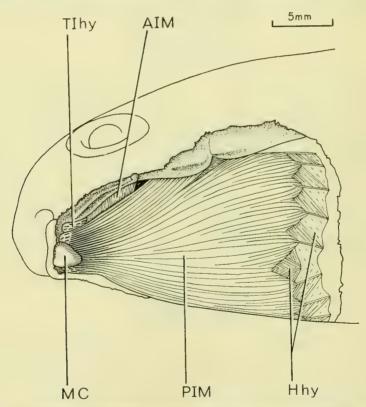


Fig. 13. Cyphomyrus discorhynchus: oblique ventro-lateral view of the hyoid musculature, after removal of the skin.

The anterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 13) is a short muscle showing some individual variability in length. In only one of the three fishes examined does this muscle extend anteriorly to the level of the posterior intermandibularis insertion; in one fish it extends posteriorly to the interoperculum (to which it is attached), in another it does not quite reach that point, whilst in the third fish, the muscle is attached to the interoperculum on one side but does not contact that bone on the other side. In all three specimens a slip from the posterior margin of the muscle passes upwards on each side to insert on the anterior face of the ceratohyal.

The major part of the *sternohyoideus* originates, aponeurotically, from the ventral body musculature; only a small part of the muscle originates from the cleithrum.

The ventral gill arch musculature is unusual in having, in addition to a *rectus* communis, a short but discrete muscle extending between the ventro-lateral ends of the second and third ceratobranchials.

Marcusenius cyprinoides (Linn.).

(Text-fig. 2F)

This species is usually classified in the genus *Gnathonemus*, but Taverne's (1968) recent investigations have shown that it and other short-snouted species are more properly included in the genus *Marcusenius* Gill as revised by Taverne (of which *M. cybrinoides* is the type species).

The snout of M. cyprinoides is relatively short and broad, and is not strongly decurved. The small mouth is terminal in position but has its opening directed somewhat dorsally. There is a noticeable submental protruberence into which the

lower lip passes insensibly.

The posterior intermandibularis has the typical mormyrid origin from the interoperculum and from above the hyphyoideus. It inserts, however, entirely onto the enlarged submental cartilage; that is, it has no direct connection with the dentary.

The anterior intermandibularis, in contrast with that of the other species described above, is greatly reduced in size. Its length is only slightly greater than that of the eye, and it is confined to the articular region of the lower jaw. It inserts onto the articular of each side just before the articular-quadrate joint. The medial section of this muscle is tendinous.

The paired *interhyoideus* muscles, and the hypertrophied *hyohyoideus* are typical. The *sternohyoideus* originates mainly from the dorsal surface of the horizontal limb of the cleithrum, but a small ventral part arises, aponeurotically, from the hypaxial body musculature. As in other mormyrid genera, the anterior part of the sternohyoid is closely associated with the ventral region of the first two gill arches. The ventral processes from the second hypobranchials are completely embedded in the sternohyoideus.

The ventral gill arch muscles are typical (see under M. kannume) except that there is, apparently, no short, triangular muscle connecting the fourth and fifth cerato-

branchials.

Marcusenius victoriae (Worthington)

(Text-fig. 2G)

This species closely resembles M. cyprinoides (and like that species was formerly included in the genus Gnathonemus).

The musculature too is virtually identical with that of M. cyprinoides, although the anterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 14) is a little further reduced in size, and the muscle connecting the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials is present.

Gnathonemus longibarbis (Hilgendorf)

(Text-fig. 2H)

The snout is moderately short (especially as compared with other *Gnathonemus* species; see Taverne [1968]), the mouth small and terminal, and there is a long tubular submental barbel.

The posterior intermandibularis is an extensive muscle, originating, as is usual, over the hyohyoideus and from the interopercula. It has strong connective tissue attachments (in which some muscle fibres occur) to the ventral margin of the

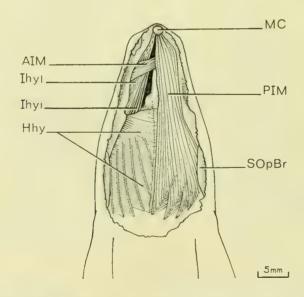


Fig. 14. Marcusenius victoriae: ventral hyoid musculature. The right half of the posterior intermandibularis muscle removed to show overlying muscles.

articular, dentary and preoperculum. Anteriorly, the muscle almost completely surrounds the massive, elongate submental cartilage, and reaches to its distal tip. A few fibres attach to the dentary at the base of the cartilage.

There is no trace of a distinct anterior (i.e. transverse) intermandibularis, nor can it

be detected as a component of the posterior intermandibularis.

The *interhyoidei* are well developed but the bellies of the medial and lateral muscles on each side are not readily separated. Both divisions have distinct origins and insertions (like those in the species where the bodies of the muscles are distinct).

The hyohyoideus is typical (see page 25).

Most of the *sternohyoideus* originates on the cleithrum, but a small ventral portion is continuous with the hypaxial body musculature. As in other mormyrid species, the muscle has an intimate association with the ventral elements of the first two gill arches; the processes from the second hypobranchials are embedded proximally but lie on the surface of the sternohyoid distally.

The ventral gill arch muscles are typical (see page 25 et seq.).

Campylomormyrus elephas (Blgr.)

(Text-fig. 2I)

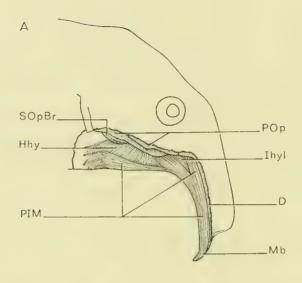
Previously placed in the genus *Gnathonemus*, this species has, on osteological grounds, been reclassified, with others, in the genus *Campylomormyrus* (see Taverne, 1968).

The snout of *C. elephas* is greatly elongate, is tubular and strongly decurved; the tip lies well below the ventral head profile. The mouth is small and, relative to the snout, terminal. Because of the snout's decurvature the mouth opening is directed ventrally. The lower lip is continuous with a short, root-like mental barbel.

Posterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 15A and B): is a complex muscle, paired posteriorly, single anteriorly. The single portion extends from about the level of the quadrate-articular joint to the tip of the mental cartilage on which it is inserted. At no point along its length does this part of the muscle insert onto the dentary or articular.

The paired part is subdivided and has, on each side, several sites of origin. A little behind the point where the two halves of the muscle unite, each is divisible into more or less readily distinguishable dorsally and posterodorsally directed branches (text-fig. 15A). The area between these divisions is, however, traversed by a few interconnecting fibres. The dorsal branch is attached to the dentary and the articular while the posterodorsal branch is attached only to the interoperculum. The points of attachment should be considered as the sites of origin for the muscle as a whole.

Near the insertion of the posterodorsal branch (on the interoperculum) it is joined by a third division which originates, aponeurotically, over the hyphyoideus. This third branch, compared with the hinder part of the posterior intermandibularis in



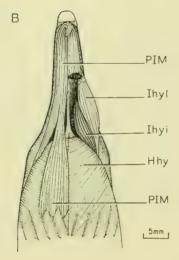


Fig. 15. Campylomormyrus elephas: A. Ventral hyoid muscles in lateral view after removal of the skin. B. The same, in ventral view, with the posterior three quarters of the left half of the posterior intermandibularis removed, and the left lateral division of the interhyoideus displaced laterally.

other mormyrids, is rather narrow and does not join its counterpart, although the two approach one another closely in the midline (see text-fig. 15A).

The anterior intermandibularis is, apparently, absent.

The interhyoideus (text-fig. 15B) like that of Gnathonemus, is incompletely subdivided (see page 33).

The hyohyoideus conforms with the typical pattern for mormyrids.

The sternohyoideus originates, about equally, from the cleithrum and the hypaxial body muscles. It inserts onto the urohyal and has close connections with the second basibranchial and other ventral elements of the first two gill arches. The processes from the second hypobranchials are embedded proximally; distally each lies superficially on, but attached to the sternohyoid flank.

The ventral gill arch muscles are typical (see page 25); the muscle linking the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials is present.

Petrocephalus bane (Lacép.)

(Text-fig. 2J)

The snout is short and broad, the mouth broad and subterminal, and lies almost immediately below the eye.

The text-figures for *P. catostoma* are, in general, applicable to this species as well. *Posterior intermandibularis*. The two halves of this muscle are narrowly separated medially by a fine aponeurosis. The muscle originates from the first two branchiostegal rays and from above the hyohyoideus. It inserts, tendinously, along the entire ventral margin of the short lower jaw from symphysis to articular-quadrate joint. The uppermost fibres of this muscle separate easily from the ventral fibres, and in one specimen there appears to be some exchange of fibres between the posterior intermandibularis and the overlying interhyoideus muscle (see below). Close contact between these muscles is enhanced by the complete absence of an *anterior intermandibularis*.

Petrocephalus bane, unlike the species described before, has only one interhyoideus present on each side. The muscle, despite its great relative depth has a narrow origin on the dorsal part of the anterior face of the ceratohyal. In contrast, it has a deep and extensive insertion on the inner aspect of the dentary and articular, linearly from a point near the symphysis almost to the joint with the quadrate, and vertically from dorsal to ventral margins of these bones.

The *hyohyoideus* is well-developed and of the usual form, except that only a very small part is inserted onto the urohyal.

The sternohyoideus originates about equally on the cleithrum and from the hypaxial body muscles.

The ventral gill arch muscles are typical, with a small interceratobranchial muscle between the fourth and fifth arches (see page 25 et seq.).

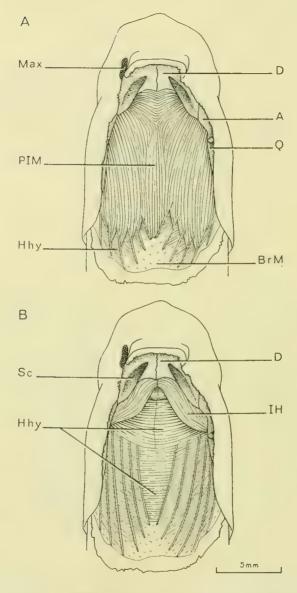


Fig. 16. Petrocephalus catostoma: ventral hyoid muscles. A. After removal of the skin. B. After removal of the posterior intermandibularis muscle.

Petrocephalus catostoma (Günther)

In its superficial morphology this species closely resembles *P. bane*; the myology is likewise very similar.

The posterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 16A) of P. catostoma has a more extensive origin over the hypohyoideus, and the tendinous part of the insertion is wider in this species. Some anterior fibres are almost transversely arranged (text-fig. 16A), thus contrasting with the obliquely orientated fibres posteriorly. Since no distinct anterior intermandibularis can be located in this species either, it is tempting to consider these transverse fibres as remnants of an anterior muscle now fused with the posterior part.

As in *P. bane*, only one interhyoideus (text-fig. 16B) is present on each side. These muscles are completely free from the underlying intermandibularis.

In all other respects the musculature of the two species can be considered identical, and typical of the family.

Isichthys henryi Gill

(Text-fig. 2K)

The broad snout of this species is relatively short and is not at all decurved. The mouth is terminal, horizontal and rather broad.

The posterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 17) of *I. henryi* shows very considerable reduction when compared with that muscle in all the species described above. The

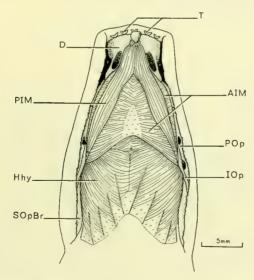


Fig. 17. Isichthys henryi: ventral hyoid muscles, after removal of the skin.

muscle is reduced to a narrow V-shaped band of fibres with the apex directed anteriorly; its origin is entirely from the interoperculum, and its tendinous insertion is onto the small mandibular cartilage lying above the interdentary symphysis.

Overlying the narrow posterior intermandibularis is the broad anterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 17) which extends across the lower jaw from the level of the posterior interopercular margin to immediately behind the interdentary symphysis. The muscle has a largely musculose insertion onto the ventral margins of the dentary and articular; its fibres are separated medially by a posteriorly broad but anteriorly narrow aponeurosis. Over the anterior quarter of the muscle the fibres are arranged almost transversely, but elsewhere they run obliquely forward.

The hyphyoideus (text-fig. 17) shows typical hypertrophy, and there are distinct

lateral and medial interhyoideus muscles on each side.

The sternohyoideus originates about equally from the cleithrum and, aponeurotically, from the hypaxial body musculature. As usual, the sternohyoid is closely associated with the ventral elements of the first two gill arches. The ventral processes of the second hypobranchials he superficial to the lateral surface of the sternohyoid, but are closely bound to it by connective tissue.

The ventral gill arch musculature conforms to the typical pattern (see page 25); the small muscle between the fourth and fitth ceratobranchials is not clearly differentiated and seems to be a slip from the anterior transversus. The posterior transversus

is a narrow muscle but is otherwise typical.

Mormyrops anguilloides (Linn.)

(Text-fig. 2L)

The snout is relatively short in *M. anguilloides*, and is not decurved. The mouth is wide and terminal.

A specimen of the closely related M. deliciosus (Leach) was also dissected and its musculature found to be identical with that of M. anguilloides.

Posterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 18A). The muscle thought to be a posterior intermandibularis (see below) is a largely tendinous sheet within which lies a narrow band of transverse fibres arranged on either side of a median aponeurosis. Posteriorly, a short, upwardly directed slip of muscle runs to each interopercle; there is also a broader posterior extension of the muscular part which ends, aponeurotically, above the hyohyoideus (text-fig. 18A). Fibres in this part of the muscle are longitudinally orientated. The attachments to the interoperculum and the aponeurotic connection over the hyohyoideus should, presumably, be considered as the origins of the muscle; its insertion is directly onto the dentary near and on the symphysis (there being no mental cartilage in this species). The lateral and tendinous part of the muscle is attached to the interopercula, preopercula, the articulars and the dentaries,

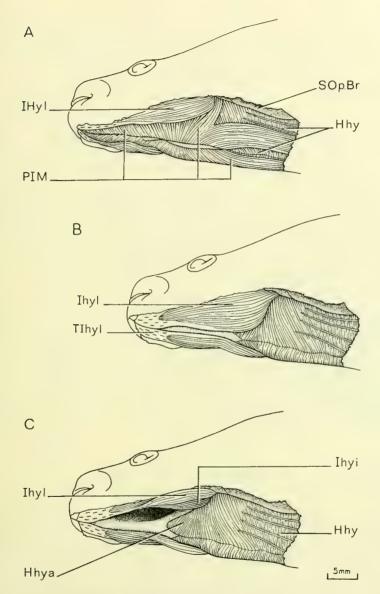


Fig. 18. Mormyrops anguilloides: oblique ventro-lateral view of the ventral hyoid muscles.
A. After removal of skin. B. After removal of posterior intermandibularis muscle
C. As in B but with lateral division of left interhyoideus reflected to show the inner division of that muscle.

No discrete anterior intermandibularis is present. The possibility of this muscle having fused with the posterior division cannot be overruled because the muscle thought to be the posterior intermandibularis is fairly clearly demarcated into an anterior part with transverse fibres, and a posterior sector with longitudinal fibres (see above). If the posterior and anterior intermandibulares are fused, then Mormyrops presents a rare condition among the mormyrids (but see also Petrocephalus catostoma).

The interhyoideus in *Mormyrops* also exhibits certain peculiarities (text-fig. 18B, C). As is usual, the lateral muscle of each pair is the larger. It originated dorsally on the anterior face of the ceratohyal, but it has two insertions, one directly onto the inner and ventral aspects of the dentary and articular, the other, tendinously, onto the anteroventral face of the dentary immediately lateral to the

symphysis.

The smaller median muscle also originates on the anterior face of the ceratohyal but it inserts, aponeurotically, onto the median aspect of the lateral muscle. In other words, it has no direct attachment to the lower jaw. Indeed, the separation between the two muscles is very slight even near their origins and there is an exchange of fibres between them (a condition reminiscent of that in *Gnathonemus* and *Campylomormyrus* [see pages 33 and 35 respectively]).

The hyohyoideus (text-fig. 18) shows typical hypertrophy and relationships with

other structures (see page 25).

Most of the *sternohyoideus* originates as an extension of the ventral body musculature; only a small part stems from the cleithrum. The processes from the second hypobranchials are fairly deeply embedded in muscle.

The ventral gill arch muscles are typical (see page 25), but the small muscle between the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials appears to be missing, and the slip from the first obliquus is greatly reduced in size.

The pharyngocleithrales are moderately well-developed, especially the external

division.

Hyperopisus bebe (Lacép.)

(Text-fig. 2M)

The snout is relatively short and not decurved, the mouth moderately broad, terminal in position and horizontally directed.

Hyperopisus bebe is unique among mormyrids in having greatly enlarged and molariform teeth on the parasphenoid and apposing basibranchial tooth plate. Not only are the teeth enlarged, but they occupy a much broader area of attachment in both places than is usual among species with small conical teeth (see figs. in Taverne, 1968).

The posterior intermandibularis (text-fig. 19A) shows a degree of reduction comparable with that in *Isichthys*. From the interoperculum of each side a moderately

developed, strap-like muscle extends forward to insert on the small mental cartilage. Dorsally, the muscle has no contact with the ventral margin of the lower jaw. Between the arms of the strap-like muscle there is a broad tendinous sheet of tissue extending back to about the level of the posterior interopercular margin. Here it becomes continuous with the tendinous part of the overlying anterior intermandibularis. The margin of the tendon passes insensibly into a number of weak musclefibre bundles which, in turn have an aponeurotic connection with the hyohyoideus (see text-fig. 19A).

Immediately above the posterior intermandibularis is the well-defined and thick anterior intermandibularis. Except for a short distance posteriorly there is no median aponeurosis in this muscle, whose fibres extend from side to side of the lower jaw (text-fig. 19B). Insertion is onto the ventral margins of the dentary, articular, preoperculum and interoperculum, and, anteriorly, onto the mental cartilage. The anterior intermandibularis extends from the level of the vertical preopercular arm to a little behind the interdentary symphysis.

The *interhyoideus* muscles have a characteristic and complex form in *Hyperopisus* (text-fig. 19C-D). The ventro-lateral muscle of each pair is the smaller and is largely tendinous (see text-fig. 19C-D). It originates on the epihyal (with a very small part from the head of the fourth branchiostegal ray), and runs straight forward to insert on a low ventral process of the dentary.

The inner and dorsal muscle is divided, from near its origin, into two elements, one directed horizontally, the other (the innermost) running laterally and anteriorly (text-fig. 19C-D). The medial subdivision is the smaller of the two. It arises from some of the dorsal and external fibres of the lateral subdivision near the upper part of its origin. From a narrow beginning, the medial subdivision fans out so that it comes to extend along the ventral margin of the urohyal (anterior, that is, to the insertion of the hyohyoideus). The left and right medial subdivisions meet in a fairly narrow aponeurosis over the urohyal; some fibres from the underlying anterior intermandibularis also are attached to this tendinous tissue. Anteriorly, the aponeurosis is extended as a short tendon which inserts onto the dentary immediately below the symphysis.

The lateral subdivision of the inner interhyoideus has a broad origin from almost the entire anterior face of the ceratohyal. Its fibres run outwards and forwards, crossing above those of the outer division. The muscle inserts, either directly or through a narrow tendinous margin, onto the inner aspect of the quadrate, articular, and anteriorly, the dentary (text-fig. 19C-D).

The hyohyoideus (text-fig. 19C–D), although well-developed, gives the impression of being relatively less massive in this species. The anterior section is not as thick as in the other species described, and the interbranchiostegal portions are also weaker. As usual, the hyohyoideus inserts on the interoperculum, ceratohyal and urohyal, the latter insertion being relatively more extensive than in most of the other mormyrids examined.

The sternohyoideus is a short, deep muscle whose origin is entirely from the dorsal face of the cleithrum. The processes from the second hypobranchials curve out-

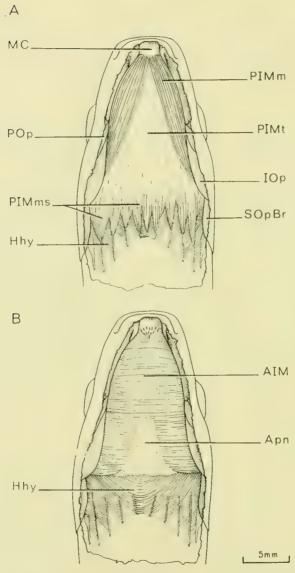
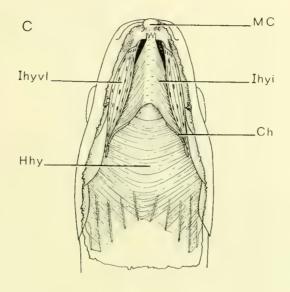
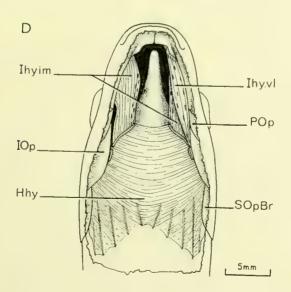


Fig. 19. Hyperopisus bebe: ventral hyoid muscles. A. After removal of skin. B. After removal of posterior intermandibularis muscle and tendon complex. C. After removal of anterior intermandibularis muscle. D. Right ventro-lateral division of the interhyoideus muscle removed to show underlying innermost division of this muscle complex. Entire inner (medial) division of this complex also removed.





wards and slightly backwards so as to lie almost horizontally; each lies superficial to the sternohyoid but is closely bound to that muscle.

The ventral gill arch musculature is like that of Mormyrus (see page 25), except that there is no muscle linking the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials. The external pharyngocleithralis has a short tendinous section at about the middle of its visible length, and the entire external division is virtually tendinous.

Family GYMNARCHIDAE

Gymnarchus niloticus Cuvier

(Text-fig. 2N)

The snout in *Gymnarchus niloticus* is relatively elongate, moderately broad and is not decurved. The terminal mouth is horizontally placed and its cleft extends much further posteriorly than in any mormyrid species. *Gymnarchus* is also unusual in having no teeth on the parasphenoid, and in lacking basibranchial tooth plates (see Nelson, 1968 and Taverne, 1970).

Holmquist (1911) has given a fairly detailed account of certain muscles; his description and figures were later used by Edgeworth (1935). Neither author was able to carry out comparative studies on other mormyroids and it is thus understandable how they came to emphasize the apparent similarities between *Gymnarchus* and *Albula*, in particular the hyperdevelopment of the transverse intermandibularis muscle.

Although these similarities do exist, and although *Gymnarchus* departs from the typical mormyrid condition, the similarities between it and *Albula* are less than those shared with the Mormyridae. In particular, one may note the shared specializations in the ventral gill arch musculature and the sternohyoideus.

The hyoid musculature (text-fig. 20). Immediately below the skin, and closely adherent to it, there is a broad, generally thick sheet of muscle which thins out posteriorly. It is attached to the operculum, sub- and interopercula, the preoperculum, dentary and articular. Anteriorly, this muscle inserts around the ventral margin of the mandibular arcade; posteriorly it extends to the level of the branchial opening (text-fig. 20). Throughout its length the fibres of the muscle are transversely arranged and extend from side to side without any indication of a median aponeurosis. Innervation is from a branch of the mandibular V nerve.

Holmquist (op. cit.) identifies this muscle as an intermandibularis; from the transverse arrangement of its fibres (text-fig. 20) it would seem to be homologous with the anterior intermandibularis of mormyrids. Since there is no trace of any muscle ventral to this sheet, and because there are no indications of longitudinal fibres in the sheet, one must conclude that a posterior intermandibularis is absent.

Immediately above the intermandibularis is a pair of muscles that insert, anteriorly, on the inner aspect of the dentary on either side of the symphysis (text-

fig. 20). Neither muscle meets the other at any point, although they are closely aligned anteriorly. The muscles originate in part from the epi- and ceratohyal, and in part from the first branchiostegal ray. In large individuals each muscle is incompletely divided, horizontally, so as to virtually form a small dorsal and larger ventral muscle (text-fig. 20). The ventral subdivision is that described above; the dorsal part originates on the epihyal and inserts on the inner face of the dentary about halfway along its length. The smallest fish examined (14·0 cm standard length) has no division, or even incipient division, in the muscle; consequently the single muscle on each side appears to have a double insertion, one anteriorly and the other laterally at about the middle of the dentary.

These muscles (or muscle) correspond, in most details, to the *interhyoideus* of mormyrids, and are identified as such in *Gymnarchus*.

One difference in the interhyoid of *Gymnarchus* is the considerable proportion of muscle originating from the first branchiostegal ray (text-fig. 20). In mormyrids the interhyoid originates exclusively from the hyoid bar, and there is complete separation between the interhyoid and the hyohyoideus. The situation in *Gymnarchus* is very different. In fact, the muscle described above could well be a combined inter- and hyohyoideus. In *Gymnarchus* the only clearly recognizable *hyohyoideus* is the superior or interbranchiostegal ray portion (text-fig. 20); here it is represented by a few, well-spaced oblique fibres running between the branchiostegal rays. No distinct inferior hyohyoid can be recognized. Indeed, those fibres, which, topo-

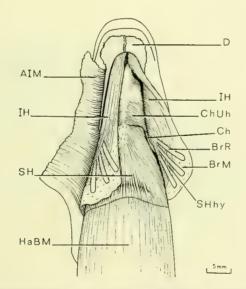


Fig. 20. Gymnarchus niloticus: ventral hyoid musculature. Anterior intermandibularis cut and reflected to the right; left interhyoideus reflected to the left.

graphically, would form the inferior hyohyoid merge with the fibres forming the body of the muscle I have identified as the interhyoideus. Thus, the situation in *Gymnarchus* has all the appearance of a secondary return to the primitive condition in which the constrictor hyoideus ventralis has not split into inter- and hyohyoid portions. That the condition is not strictly a primitive one is indicated by the separate left and right inter- cum-hyohyoideus muscles.

The poorly developed hyphyoideus of *Gymnarchus* contrasts markedly with the hypertrophy of that muscle in all mormyrids. *Gymnarchus* also differs in having the branchiostegal rays (and their associated musculature) free from the ventral body muscles. Nevertheless, the branchiostegal membrane (i.e. the interray muscles and tendons) still does not provide a ventrolateral floor to the branchial cavity. This is formed by a membranous sheet which runs, on each side, from the inner face of the corresponding ceratohyal to the upper part of the sternohyoid muscle. In effect, each branchiostegal membrane constitutes a lateral half pouch (opening medially but blind anteriorly) over the sternohyoid and hypaxial muscles. The intermandibularis muscle covers these pouches and their medial openings. This greater pouch is open posteriorly across the breadth of the body.

Identifying the hyoid muscles of *Gymnarchus* is further complicated by the presence of a pair of small muscles that lie immediately anterior to the sternohyoid

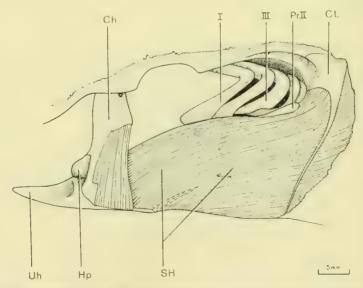


Fig. 21. Gymnarchus niloticus: Sternohyoid and ceratohyal-urohyal muscles in left lateral view; semi-schematic.

insertion (text-figs 20 & 21). Each muscle has its fibres arranged almost vertically, and is attached to the ventral margin of the ceratohyal above and to the urohyal below. It seems likely that these are the muscles which Holmquist (op. cit.) showed in his figure and which he tentatively identified as branchio-mandibulares (labelled: genio-branchialis in Edgeworth's [1935] reproduction of Holmquist's figure). However, Holmquist does clearly state that the fibres run longitudinally.

Holmquist (op. cit.) commented that he had not seen such a muscle in any other teleosts, and neither have later workers described similar muscular arrangement.

Holmquist's and Edgeworth's identification of this muscle are tentative, but I have difficulty in understanding why they considered it to be a branchiomandibularis or geniobranchialis. Such a muscle is not found in teleosts, and morphologically it is one connecting the lower jaw with the hyobranchial skeleton. Be that as it may, the identification of the muscle pair still poses several questions. That each is attached to both the ceratobranchial and the urohyal suggests one of three things: that the muscle could be a subdivision of the interhyoideus (see *Hyperopisus*, p. 41), could be part of the sternohyoideus (see *Arapaima*, p. 15 and *Papyrocranus*, p. 20), or could be a separated segment of the hyohyoideus. Without ontogenetic studies it seems unlikely that an answer can be provided.

The sternohyoideus (text-figs 20 & 21) is a large muscle originating almost entirely from the dorsal face of the cleithrum, but with a few ventral fibres contributed by the hypaxial body musculature. Each ventral process from the second hypobranchial is very large, stout, and orientated so as to lie horizontally along and within the upper border of the sternohyoid (see fig. 21). Because the cleithrum is almost vertical in position and without a forwardly directed arm, the ventral processes form the ventral margins to the branchial chamber; in mormyrids the dorsal surface of the horizontal arm of each cleithrum forms the margin. The great size and peculiar orientation of the ventral processes in Gymnarchus appears to be unique within the Mormyriformes.

Ventral gill arch muscles in Gymnarchus conform to the usual mormyrid pattern but show several modifications doubtless associated with the reduced branchial skeleton in this genus (Taverne, 1970; Nelson, 1968).

The *obliquus* of the first gill arch is a stout muscle with a double insertion onto the anterior and posteroventral margins of the ceratobranchial; its origin covers most of the ventral surface of the hypobranchial. The second obliquus is a much smaller muscle. There is no obliquus muscle on the third arch, whose ceratobranchial is closely associated with the *rectus communis* muscle linking the fourth ceratobranchial with the base of the ventral process from the second hypobranchial.

The *pharyngocleithrales* are relatively stout muscles which can only be seen after deep dissection because they originate on the medial side of the sternohyoid (*cf.* mormyrids where the origin is lateral to that muscle). The near vertical cleithrum also effects the alignment of these muscles which thus originate behind the fifth ceratobranchial.

The internal muscle of each pair is the larger and longer; it runs obliquely forward and upwards to insert on the ventral tip of the ceratobranchial. The external

muscle is flatter and thinner, and runs almost vertically upwards to insert on the ventral face of the bone near its median edge and posterior border.

The *transversus* of the fourth arch is a fairly broad muscle linking the ventral tips of the ceratobranchials. The transversus of the fifth arch, however, joins the ceratobranchials near their posterior (*i.e.* upper) borders, and is in close contact with the external pharyngocleithrales near their points of insertion. This arrangement contrasts with that in the Mormyridae, where the fifth transversus runs forwards and medially as a V-shaped muscle to attach to the cartilaginous basibranchial plate between the fourth and fifth arches.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

For the purpose of this discussion, the term ventral hyoid musculature includes the anterior and posterior intermandibulares, and the interhyoideus muscle (with its subdivisions), either as separate entities or with some elements partly fused to form a protractor hyoideus (see Introduction, page 4). My use of the term protractor hyoideus differs somewhat from that employed by Edgeworth (1935, p. 101). This implies neither criticism nor acceptance of Edgeworth's concepts, and is used merely for brevity's sake (but see page 49 below).

Among the Osteoglossomorpha, two principal types of ventral hyoid musculature can be recognized. In one there is a protractor hyoideus (Hiodontidae, Osteoglossidae and Pantodontidae), while in the other the posterior intermandibularis and the interhyoideus muscles are quite separate (Notopteridae and Mormyridae). Gymnarchus could, perhaps, be considered as constituting a third type, but I would prefer to consider its pattern as a modified mormyrid type (see below).

The pattern shown by *Hiodon* is the most unspecialized one, and compares closely with that of the holostean *Amia* and such primitive teleosts as *Elops* and *Megalops*. Compared with the protractor hyoideus in these fishes, that of *Hiodon* is a little more specialized because the component muscles show a greater degree of consolidation

and unification (see page 9).

Apart from some slight intergeneric variations, the protractor hyoideus in the Osteoglossidae and Pantodontidae presents a uniform picture. Compared with Hiodon, consolidation of component muscles is carried even further. The compound muscle is, indeed, like that occurring in species of several euteleostean groups (e.g. Salmo, Abramis and Peristedion: see Edgeworth, 1935). Edgeworth (op. cit.), based on Holmquist's (1911) studies, interprets the ventral hyoid muscles in Osteoglossum as having the posterior intermandibularis "... attached by intersection to the inner part of the Interhyoideus, so that externally there is an Interhyoideus which reaches the jaws and internally a Protractor hyoidei". This description certainly fits the condition found in Pantodon (see page 16), but in the other osteoglossoid genera (including Osteoglossum) I can find no such clear-cut division into ventrally placed posterior intermandibularis and dorsal interhyoideus (see page 12). The impression gained is one of greater fusion between the two muscles (if indeed

they are arranged in a dorsoventral series). From adult anatomy it seems that an anteroposterior fusion is just as probable, the forward section being derived from the posterior intermandibularis muscle, the hinder part from the interhyoideus (see page 12). In other words, a condition fulfilling Edgeworth's definition of "... a fully developed Protractor hyoidei...—a longitudinal muscle the anterior part of which is formed by the Intermandibularis posterior and the posterior part of the Interhyoideus".1

The unconsolidated ventral hyoid muscles in notopterid and mormyrid fishes represent a different line of specialization, and one apparently otherwise seen only in

siluroid ostariophysans (see pages 18 & 25).

In both notopterids and mormyrids the most superficial muscle is the posterior intermandibularis. The Gymnarchidae have lost the posterior intermandibularis, and thus the superficial muscle is probably an expanded anterior intermandibularis (see page 44). In all three families the interhyoideus component is a deep muscle, relatively small in notopterids but enlarged (and generally subdivided) in mormyrids and gymnarchids. There is also a difference in the way in which the interhyoideus inserts. Notopterids have the insertion on the hypohyals, but in the two other families the muscle is attached to the medial face of the lower jaw.

There is little intergeneric variation in the hyoid musculature of notopterids but a considerable amount within the mormyrids, involving all elements, including the

anterior intermandibularis muscle.

Recent studies on the anatomy and osteology of mormyrid and gymnarchid fishes all indicate that species of the genus *Petrocephalus* are probably the least specialized (see Nelson [1968] on branchial arches; Taverne [1968, 1969 and 1970] on osteology, and Orts [1967] on visceral and auditory anatomy). *Petrocephalus* is also outstanding for being the only mormyrid in which the interhyoid of each side remains undivided. Of the other ventral muscles in *Petrocephalus*, the posterior intermandibularis is absent (or, possibly, fused with the posterior muscle; see page 37). The anterior intermandibularis is present in other genera with relatively unspecialized cranial characters, for example *Marcusenius* which closely resembles *Petrocephalus* in many respects. Thus, the absence of an intermandibularis in *Petrocephalus* may be a specialization.

Equally, the broad and expansive anterior intermandibularis found in *Mormyrus*, *Hyperopisus*, *Isichthys*, and *Gymnarchus* is probably a derived condition, as would be the lack of this muscle in *Gnathonemus* and *Campylomormyrus*, genera showing great specialization in jaw and snout form. The peculiar condition of the intermandibularis muscle (or muscles) in *Mormyrops* (page 38) is difficult to interpret, and is unlike either the *Mormyrus-Marcusenius* or the *Gnathonemus-Campylomormyrus*

'If such definite ontogenetic differences exist in the way a "protractor hyoideus" is formed, then there would be every justification for recognizing the end products by different names.

I am less impressed by the validity of Edgeworth's (op. cit.) two subdivisions for those fishes without a fully formed (sensu Edgeworth) protractor hyoideus (see Edgeworth, op. cit., pp. 100-101). For instance, the differences described by Edgeworth between Perca (his division I) and Osteoglossum (division 2) seem to be more a difference of degree than of fundamental organisation.

types. The relatively short anterior intermandibularis of *Marcusenius* and *Cyphomyrus* should probably be taken as the least specialized mormyrid condition. Nevertheless, this type still represents a marked departure from the basic teleostean condition (as in *Hiodon*) or even that in the generality of the euteleosts.

The posterior intermandibularis is, in most mormyrid genera, well-developed and expansive. Although this form represents a derived condition as compared with the presumed basal teleostean type (e.g. Hiodon and Elops), it should probably be considered the primitive condition for mormyrids. Specialization by reduction of this state is seen in Mormyrops, Isichthys and Hyperopisus. This shared specialization cannot alone be taken to imply any phyletic relationship between these genera, especially since the end-product in Mormyrops is unlike that of the other two genera. Different specializations of the posterior intermandibularis are seen in Gnathonemus (extension in connection with the hypertrophied mental barbel, see page 32) and Campylomormyrus (multiple sites of origin, presumably correlated with extreme snout elongation and decurvature; see page 33).

The complete absence of a posterior intermandibularis in *Gymnarchus* is unique among mormyroid fishes, and is associated with a number of other muscular specializations in the hyoid and branchial systems (see page 44). The hyoid and gill arch musculature in this genus are so specialized that they provide few clear-cut phyletic pointers. About all that can be said regarding the relationships of *Gymnarchus* is that the presence in the skull of lateral ethmoids, paired orbitosphenoids, and a basisphenoid (see Taverne, 1970), together with the relatively unspecialized inner ear (Orts, 1967), all point to derivation from the *Marcusenius-Petrocephalus-Mormyrus* assemblage rather than the *Gnathonemus Isichthys-Mormyrops* group.

The sum of characters, both specialized and generalized in *Gymnarchus* suggest that it was a fairly early departure from the main mormyroid stem. Its retention in a distinct, monotypic family is probably not justified on phyletic grounds; its placement in a subfamily (Gymnarchinae) of the Mormyridae, however, would more accurately reflect its relationships.

The ventral branchial muscles in the Osteoglossomorpha are, on the criteria discussed by Nelson (1967), moderately specialized, being comparable with those of *Polymixia* in his series *Elops Aulopus-Polymixia–Epinephalus*. The presence of obliqui inferiores in the dorsal branchial musculature of mormyrids and osteoglossids is, according to Nelson (1969), a secondary and advanced feature not present in any member of his *Elops–Epinephalus* series.

In Nelson's argument, the development of a rectus communis (and the degree of its antero-posterior extent) is taken to be indicative of specialization. This muscle in Osteoglossomorpha provides something of a puzzle. It is developed in all members of the superorder except in three of the five osteoglossid genera, namely Osteoglossum, Scleropages, and Arapaima. When present the muscle extends from the fourth arch to the second (attaching to the basibranchial in Hiodon but to the hypo-

¹Hence, because these were the species he examined, Nelson's (1969) observation that a rectus communis is not developed in Osteoglossidae; it is, on the other hand, well-developed in *Heterotis miloticus* and *Pantodon buchholzi*.

branchial in all others). In terms of its volume, the muscle is largest in *Hiodon* although its anterior third is entirely tendinous.

Apart from the large rectus communis, the ventral branchial muscles in *Hiodon* show no outstanding characters. As in the notopterids (except *Xenomystus*) and osteoglossids, *Hiodon* has a rectus muscle between the third ceratobranchial and the second hypobranchial, and the well-developed pharyngocleithrales originate medial to the sternohyoideus.

An interesting feature of the notopterids is the way in which the heads of the ventral obliqui muscles on the first two arches attach to both the basibranchials and hypobranchials. The same muscles in mormyrids also have a complex origin, the first attaching to the second hypobranchial as well as to the first, and the second obliquus extending below the hypobranchial of that arch to reach the second basibranchial.

No rectus muscle is developed in mormyrids, but in one species (Cyphomyrus discorhynchus) a stout muscle links the ventral ends of the second and third ceratobranchials. Another peculiar muscle, present in most mormyrids (but not in Mormyrops, Hyperopisus or Gymnarchus, and weak in Isichthys) extends between the ventral ends of the fourth and fifth ceratobranchials (see page 26). This muscle could be a segment of the anterior transversus muscle. The posterior transversus in all mormyrids except Gymnarchus (page 48) is V-shaped with its apex attached to the cartilaginous fourth basibranchial.

The mormyrid pharyngocleithrales are, in general, weak and often tendinous muscles with a deep insertion onto the fifth ceratobranchial, and an origin lateral to the sternohyoideus. *Gymnarchus*, by contrast, conforms with the more usual teleost condition in which the muscles originate lateral to the sternohyoid.

All Osteoglossomorpha, with the exception of *Hiodon*, have a pair of ventrally directed bony processes associated with the ventral end of the second gill arches (see Greenwood *et al.*, 1966 and Nelson, 1968). The processes are closely associated with the sternohyoideus muscle to which they are closely attached or in which they are embedded.

The sternohyoid of *Hiodon* is particularly interesting in this regard, and suggests a way by which the typical osteoglossomorph hypobranchial process might have evolved. In *Hiodon* the main body of the sternohyoid arises, aponeurotically, on the hypaxial body muscles and is ventral to the cleithrum. A small dorsal part of the muscle on each side, however, originates from the cleithrum. Like the ventral part, it inserts of the urohyal, but from its middorsal region a broad slip of near-tendinous muscle runs forwards and inserts on the second basibranchial (fig. 4). The possible significance of this unusually discrete connection is best appreciated when one recalls the ventral processes (or tendon bones) in notopterids. In these fishes the tendon bones articulate with the second basibranchial (and not the hypobranchial as in other osteoglosomorphs), and are closely attached to the dorsal part of the sternohyoid.

The sternohyoid in Notopteridae originates entirely from the cleithrum. Its insertion is unusual since it has tendinous connections both with the hypohyals and

with the ceratohyals; furthermore, the muscle completely surrounds the small urohyal. Since the urohyal has strong ligamentous connections with the basi-branchial tooth plate, the sternohyoid has connections, albeit indirect, with that bone as well.

Among the osteoglossids there is some fairly marked variation in sternohyoideus relationships. In all genera, however, the ventral hypobranchial processes are firmly attached to the muscle, which is also closely associated, by connective tissue fascia, with the first hypobranchials. Arapaina gigas has a complex sternohyoid (see page 15), subdivided into paired anterodorsal and unpaired ventral portions, the former inserting, through a common tendon, mainly onto the left ceratohyal. It is interesting to note that *Heterotis* (the other member of the subfamily Heterotinae) shows incipient longitudinal division of the sternohyoid anterodorsally (see page 14).

The mormyrid sternohyoideus shows little intergeneric variation, except in the relative proportions of the muscle originating from the cleithrum and from the hypaxial body musculature. All genera have a close association, through membranous fascia, between the muscle and the second basibranchial, and with the ventromedial elements of the first two gill arches (including, of course, the bony

processes of the second hypobranchials).

The most outstanding feature of the sternohyoid in *Gymnarchus* is its relationship with the hypertrophied ventral processes. These elongate and robust bones are no longer ventrally directed, but lie horizontally and are embedded in the dorsolateral margin of the muscle (see page 47). The peculiar ceratohyal urohyal muscle in *Gymnarchus* (see page 46) may be another specialization of the sternohyoid, but the relationships of the two muscles are still far from clear.

The hyohyoideus muscles in all Osteoglossomorpha, except the Mormyridae, conform to the usual teleost pattern.

The Mormyridae are outstanding for the extent to which the hyphyoidei are hypertrophied and so arranged that the "branchiostegal membrane" is virtually immovable (see page 23). The branchiostegal rays are deeply embedded in the thick superior hyphyodei which, in turn, are aponeurotically connected in the midline and are broadly inserted along almost the entire length of the ceratohyals. Because the inner aspect of each "branchiostegal membrane" is attached to the skin covering the ventral body musculature above and medial to them, they completely occlude the ventral opening to the peribranchial chamber. As a result, this opening is greatly reduced in its vertical extent.

Although it is not possible to carry out a reliable functional analysis on the basis of morbid anatomy, the arrangement of the hyohyoideus and sternohyoideus muscles in mormyrids suggests the development of a strong branchial pump. As a means of ingesting small prey, such a device would accord well with the weak jaws, small mouth and "parasphenoid-basihyal bite" of these fishes (see Nelson, 1968).

As with other myological features, the hyohyoideus muscles in *Gymnarchus* depart markedly from the typical mormyrid type (page 46). In this genus, the branchiostegal membrane is free from the overlying skin of the body, and the hyohyoidei are

reduced to a few fibres between the branchiostegal rays. Furthermore, these muscles are continuous with the more dorsally located interhyoidei (see page 45). Since *Gymnarchus* is the only mormyrid lacking parasphenoid teeth and tooth-bearing dermal plates on the basibranchials, it is very likely that the differences in musculature are associated with different feeding methods. That the gape of the mouth is relatively much larger than in the Mormyrinae, may also be significant.

Phyletic relations within the superorder. The ventral gill arch musculature provides little information on this subject. The presence of a rectus communis in some osteoglossoids (see page 18) rather negates the importance of this character in the analysis of gill musculature given by Nelson (1969). Nelson, on the basis of evidence then available noted the presence of this muscle in notopterids and mormyrids, and

its absence in osteoglossids.

The hyoid musculature, on the other hand, allows a clear-cut division to be made into fishes with a protractor hyoideus (Osteoglossidae and Pantodontidae), and those in which the posterior intermandibularis and the interhyoideus are distinct muscles (Mormyridae [including Gymnarchus] and Notopteridae). The Hiodontidae have a primitive teleostean type of hyoid musculature with respect to which both other types must be considered specialized, albeit along different lines. The osteoglossoid specialization is a common one among teleosts (see Holmquist, 1911; Dietz, 1912; Takahasi, 1925; and Edgeworth, 1935). The notopterid-mormyrid type has otherwise been recorded only in the catfishes (Siluroidei, Ostariophysi).¹ This siluroid type (Holmquist, 1911; Takahasi, op. cit.; Munshi, 1960; also personal observations on Ictalurus nebulosus, Parasilurus aristotelensis and Bagrus docmac) is basically like that of the notoperids, but its specializations are of a type not found in the latter fishes (or the mormyrids either) since they are associated with the mandibular barbels. Because, on so many characters, the siluroids are not allied to the osteoglossomorphs, the resemblance in hyoid musculature can only be convergent.

Convergence is an unlikely explanation for the similarities between notopterid and mormyrid musculature; the two groups are related in so many other characters

(Greenwood et al. 1966; Nelson, 1968 and 1969).

The relationships of the mormyrid fishes within the Osteoglossomorpha are still uncertain. Greenwood et al., (op. cit.), give the Mormyridae ordinal status coordinate with all the other osteoglossomorphs (including the Hiodontidae). McAllister (1968) preferred subordinal status, coordinate with the Osteoglossoidei and Notopteroidei, in an order (Mormyriformes) which excluded the Hiodontidae. In a paper reviewing gill arch skeletons within the Osteoglossomorpha, Nelson (1968) pointed out that most authors have given undue emphasis to certain mormyrid characteristics (especially the brain and electric organs). As a result of this stress on differences, the phyletic relations, he thought, are obscured by the hierarchical categories chosen for the Mormyridae. The gill arch studies made by Nelson led him to rearrange the osteoglossomorphs into two suborders in an order, the Osteo-

¹Munshi's (1960) description of the clupeoid *Hilsa ilisha* gives the impression that, in this species too, the posterior intermandibularis is the principal (and most superficial) hyoid muscle. The interhyoideus, he notes, is absent. I have dissected a specimen of this species and find that, like other clupeo ids (see Kirchhoff, 1958) the interhyoideus and posterior intermandibularis are fused to form a protractor hyoideus.

glossiformes. In one suborder (Notopteroidei) he placed those families in which there are either no ventral processes on the second gill arch (Hiodontidae) or the processes are tendon bones articulating with the second basibranchials (Notopteridae). In the other suborder (Mormyroidei) Nelson placed those families in which the processes are bony and fused with the second hypobranchials (Mormyridae, Gymnarchidae, Pantodontidae and Osteoglossidae). Nelson's later studies (1969) on osteoglossomorph infraorbital bones (and some other features) gave no grounds for altering his earlier classification.

I agree with Nelson's (1968) comments on the undue weight given to certain mormyrid characters, but I consider that other evidence indicates closer relationship between the notopterids and mormyrids than between the latter family and the osteoglossids. This evidence (some yet unpublished) is concerned mainly with specializations of the inner ear shared by the notopterids and mormyrids. A specialized inner ear also occurs in the hiodontids (see Greenwood, 1970; and unpublished). All three groups have an otophysic connection (of varying complexity) but none exists in the osteoglossids. Other indicators of relationship between the notopterids and hiodontids are discussed by Nelson (1969, p. 27).

The ventral hyoid musculature of *Hiodon* is too unspecialized to be of value as a phyletic indicator, but the shared specializations of this musculature in mormyrids and notopterids (see above, page 53) seems to reinforce other characters suggesting a relationship between these families. The very different specialization shown by the hyoid muscles of the Osteoglossidae and Pantodontidae implies that

these families together represent a distinct lineage.

Until I have completed certain other studies on osteoglossomorph anatomy it would be premature to put forward a revised formal classification of the superorder. However, it seems very likely that any new classification will group (within a single order) the Hiodontidae, Mormyridae and Notopteridae in one category (probably subordinal) and the Osteoglossidae and Pantodontidae in a second, and coordinate category.

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THE CLUPEOID FISHES DESCRIBED BY FRANCIS DAY

R. R.

P. K. TALWAR AND P. J. P. WHITEHEAD

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Pp. 57-85; 2 Plates, 3 Text-figures

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TRUSTEES OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

THE CLUPEOID FISHES DESCRIBED BY FRANCIS DAY

By P. K. TALWAR & P. J. P. WHITEHEAD

ABSTRACT

Francis Day described six new clupeoid fishes: Spratelloides malabaricus, Clupea sindensis, Clupea variegata, Chatoessus modestus, Pellona sladeni and Engraulis auratus. For the first of these the new genus Dayella is proposed. Except for the last, all are considered valid. Lectotypes have been chosen from among Day's figured specimens now in the Zoological Survey in Calcutta, except in the case of E. auratus for which a British Museum specimen has been chosen. The history of Day's fish collections is briefly outlined; the Calcutta specimens are considered to be the most important, followed by those in Sydney, Vienna, Leiden, Berlin, Florence and Chicago. Apart from some small collections prior to 1870, the British Museum received only the remainders (in 1889).

INTRODUCTION

Francis Day (1829–1889) listed 55 clupeoid species in his Fishes of India (1875–8), of which 47 were illustrated, and 46 species are here recognized as valid (Table 1). He described six new species of clupeoid fishes, of which all but one are valid. Day's descriptions and figures are generally good but many diagnostic features essential to modern clupeoid systematics are omitted. Unfortunately, Day did not specify which specimens were used in his original descriptions and a major problem has been to decide in which institution his types are deposited. The full history of Day's collections is complex and will be described elsewhere (Whitehead & Talwar, in preparation) but a brief resumé can be given here.

Day's first ichthyological work, the Fishes of Malabar (1865) resulted from his stay in Cochin (1859–64) and from this time stemmed small collections sent to Albert Günther at the British Museum. Day subsequently investigated the fisheries in almost every large river and along most of the coast of India and Burma, making large collections and finally returning to England in 1874 to work on his specimens and write his monumental Fishes of India (1875–1888). Unfortunately, a series of bitter quarrels developed between Day and Günther, with the result that Day donated or sold much of his collection to other museums, the British Museum once again receiving material only in the year of Day's death. The following is a summary of the distribution of Day's specimens:

1864–1870 British Museum (15 lots, c. 400 specimens. Day types specified in letters but not in Register)

East India Museum, London (7 species, including Engraulis auratus)

1875-1879	Rijksmuseum van Natuurlijke Historie, Leiden (11 lots, c. 500
	specimens. Day types claimed in Register)
1876-7	Indian Museum, Calcutta (figured specimens, now in Zoological
• •	Survey of India)
1874-1882	Zoologisches Museum, Berlin (many lots, 296 specimens. Day
	types claimed in Register)
1881-1884	Florence (three lots, 333 specimens, 3 types claimed in Register)
1883	Australian Museum, Sydney (Day collection from International
Ü	Fisheries Exhibition, London. Day, Bleeker and Blyth types
	claimed by Whitley, 1958)
1886	Naturhistorisches Museum, Vienna (1000 specimens, 815 species—
	Day and Bleeker types claimed in Annual Report)
1889	British Museum (c. 5,000 specimens. Day types subsequently
	recognized); also Leningrad (see p. 85)
1899	Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago (452 Day specimens
	from British Museum sent in exchange by Boulenger)

The Calcutta specimens include those used by Day in illustrating the Fishes of India (specified as such in Registration Book) and these are being listed by Talwar & Chakrapany (in press). We have concluded that, unless a valid lectotype has been chosen already, the figured Calcutta specimens are the most suitable. In his final letter of reconciliation to Günther, Day specified that his type collection of Indian fishes went to Calcutta, his No. 2 to Sydney, No. 3 to Vienna, while Florence, Berlin and Leiden had large numbers of specimens. Thus the British Museum received his remainders, except for types in the pre-1870 lots. This order should be followed in making a lectotype selection.

In the descriptions given here, measurements follow those of previous clupeoid studies (e.g. Whitehead, Boeseman & Wheeler, 1966). Synonomies include references based on Day material or those relevant to the discussion of Day's species. All further synonyms are given by Whitehead (in press). The following abbreviations are used:

AMS	Australian Museum, Sydney
BMNH	British Museum (Natural History), London
FMNH	Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago
MNHN	Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris
NHMV	Naturhistorisches Museum, Vienna
RMNH	Rijksmuseum van Natuurlijke Historie, Leiden
ZMB	Zoologisches Museum, Berlin
ZSI	Zoological Survey of India, Calcutta

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

For information on the Day collections sent to Leiden, Berlin, Vienna, Florence, Sydney and Chicago, and for the loan of clupeoid specimens from Leiden, Paris and Berlin, we are indebted to Dr M. Boeseman of the Rijksmuseum van Natuurlijke Historie, Dr C. Karrer of the Zoologisches Museum, Dr P. Kähsbauer of the Naturhistorisches Museum, Prof. Leo Pardi of the Museo Zoologico dell'Università,

Dr J. R. Paxton of the Australian Museum, Dr L. P. Woods of the Field Museum of Natural History in Chicago, and Dr M.-L. Bauchot of the Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle in Paris. The senior author also wishes to thank the Director, Dr A. P. Kapur, and the Superintending Zoologist, Dr A. G. K. Menon, of the Zoological Survey of India, for providing necessary facilities.

Family **CLUPEIDAE** (Subfamily **CLUPEINAE**)

1. Clupea sindensis Day, 1878

= Sardinella sindensis (Day, 1878)

(Plate 1a)

Clupea sindensis Day, 1878, The Fishes of India: 638, pl. 163 (2) (Seychelles, Sind, Bombay; figure (life-size) on Karachi specimen, shown 95.5 mm S.L.); Idem, 1889, Fauna British India, Fishes, 1: 374 (repeat).

Sardinella sindensis: Chan, 1965, Jap. J. Ichthyol., 13 (1-3): 11, fig. 21 (key, 44 specimens ex Philippines); Whitehead (in press), Symp. Indian Ocean Adj. Seas. Mar. biol. Ass. India (key, synopsis, fig.).

MATERIAL.

- a. ZSI.2630, a fish 95.5 mm S.L., ex Karachi (stated to be basis for Day's figure— LECTOTYPE)
- b. ZSI.2614, a fish 90.0 mm S.L., ex Karachi (PARALECTOTYPE)
- c. AMS.B7642, a fish 118.5 mm S.L. (140.5 mm tot. l.), ex Bombay (claimed as type by Whitley, 1958—? PARALECTOTYPE)
- d. NHMV (no specimens)
- e. RMNH (no specimens)
- f. ZMB (no specimens)
- g. BMNH.1889.2.1.1919-24, five fishes 77.5-99.5 mm S.L., ex Sind (registered as Clupea venenosa; one specimen, a skeleton)

Whitley (1958) gave wholesale endorsement to the type designations made in the published list of Day material bought by the Australian Museum in 1883 (Anon., 1885, 1886). This material, which had been shown at the International Fisheries Exhibition in London in 1883, had already been catalogued (Day, 1883) and, although some specimens were marked as the types of Bleeker and Blyth species, none was indicated as a Day type. Day appears to have described the present species on more than one specimen and while the Sydney specimen may be part of the syntypical series, we feel it preferable to designate as lectotype the one specimen that definitely contributed to the original description, viz. the Calcutta figured specimen, particularly since Day himself drew the figure.

Day (1878, 1889) tentatively included *Meletta venenosa* Valenciennes in his synonymy, hence the inclusion of the Seychelles in his distribution of the species. The Valenciennes species is *Herklotsichthys punctatus* (Rüppell) (Whitehead, 1967:

35). The British Museum specimens were not relabelled 'sindensis' until examined by Regan (1917a); it is unlikely, therefore, that they were used by Day in his description.

DESCRIPTION. Based on the LECTOTYPE, a fish 95.5 mm S.L., ex Karachi, ZSI.2630 (basis for pl. 163 (2) of Fishes of India) (in parenthesis are given measurements for the Calcutta PARALECTOTYPE, ZSI.2614).

Br. St. 6, D iii 13 (14), P i 14, V i 7, A ii 16, g.r. 36 + 65 (37 + 63), scutes 18 + 14,

scales in lateral series 42 (43), transverse II, pre-dorsal I5 (?).

In percentages of standard length: body depth 25.7 (23.9), head length 26.7 (22.5); snout length 6.5 (6.9), eye diameter 6.3 (6.9), upper jaw length 9.9 (10.6), lower jaw length 12.0 (10.6); pectoral fin length 16.2 (15.0), pelvic fin length 9.9 (8.1), length of anal fin base 15.7 (14.5); pre-dorsal distance 46.1 (43.3), pre-pelvic distance 48.2 (48.9), pre-anal distance 76.4 (77.8).

Body fairly compressed, its width about $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in its depth, the latter more or less equal to head length; belly keeled, scutes partly concealed by scales on either side. Snout equal to or a little greater than eye diameter. Upper jaw reaching to vertical from anterior third of eye; two supra-maxillae, the 1st (anterior) about 5 times as long as deep, the 2nd (posterior) with upper and lower expanded parts similar in shape and size, the whole almost circular; no hypomaxilla; expanded portion of maxilla with faint longitudinal ridges, lower edge of maxilla with fine denticulations posteriorly. Lower jaw profile rising steeply, its depth half its length. Pre-maxillae and vomer edentulous, but fine teeth on either side of dentary symphysis, a median line of conical teeth on tongue and fine teeth on palatines and ecto-and endo-pterygoids.

Gillrakers fine and slender, close-set, the longest about ½ of eye diameter and equal to length of corresponding gill filaments. Pseudobranch present, exposed, with a dozen filaments, its length about equal to eye diameter. Cleithral lobe and bilobed dermal outgrowths from cleithrum well developed. Operculum about twice as high as wide, its lower margin almost horizontal; sub-operculum rectangular. Opercular series and cheek covered by adipose tissue overlying ramifications of sensory canal system. Fronto-parietal region with cuneiform area bearing 8 (9)

longitudinal striae; supra-orbitals with about four longitudinal striae.

Dorsal fin origin much nearer to snout than to caudal base; lower part of fin invested in scaly sheath. Pectoral fin tips failing to reach pelvic base by more than one eye diameter, failing to reach vertical from dorsal origin by 1\frac{1}{3} eye diameters; no axillary scale but scales above first ray truncated to leave shallow depression for reception of fin. Pelvic fin base below middle of dorsal base, nearer to pectoral base than to anal origin; axillary scale present, almost length of fin. Anal fin slightly nearer to caudal base than to pelvic base; last two rays enlarged, about twice length of antepenultimate ray.

Scales: unexposed portion of scale with one major and four (anterior scales) to six (posterior) minor vertical striae, the former continuous, the latter interrupted at centre of scale; exposed portion of scales with eroded and slightly crenellated posterior border, faint horizontal ridging and small perforations. Pre-dorsal

medial ridge covered by overlapping scale rows on either side. Alar scales absent (probably lost; present in some specimens of BMNH.1889.2.1.1919-24).

Colour: in alcohol, upper $\frac{1}{3}$ of body slate-coloured, remainder of flanks silvery-gold. Fins hyaline, but dark spot at base of anterior dorsal rays. Inside face of operculum somewhat dusky.

NOTE. Sardinella sindensis, together with S. gibbosa (Bleeker), can be separated from other species of Sardinella by its slightly higher post-pelvic scute count (15-16, rarely 14 or 17-18; cf. 12-14, rarely 11 or 15—see key in Whitehead, in press). This slight distinction held true in 44 and 159 specimens (respectively) examined by Chan (1965), and also in British Museum material, and it is unfortunate that both lectotype and paralectotype of S. sindensis have the lower count of 14. One out of five other Day specimens (BMNH.1889.2.1.1919-24) has 14 post-pelvic scutes. If scute number is diagnostic, then S. sindensis can be separated from S. gibbosa by its slightly higher range for gillraker numbers (58-72 at 69-122 mm S.L.; cf. 43-63 at 90-150 mm S.L.—figures from Whitehead, in press). Specimens with only 14 post-pelvic scutes can be distinguished from S. albella (Valenciennes) and S. fimbriata (Valenciennes) by their more slender body (24.5-27.8% of S.L. (Chan, 1965); cf. 32-35 and 28-34% respectively—Whitehead, in press). Sardinella brachysoma Bleeker and S. zunasi (Bleeker) are also slightly deeper species which are further distinguished by the numerous overlapping or continuous vertical striae on the posterior scales.

(Subfamily PELLONULINAE)

DAYELLA gen. nov.

Type species: Spratelloides malabaricus Day.

DIAGNOSIS: clupeid fishes with 5-6 branchiostegal rays, a short anal fin (less than 20 rays), small unkeeled pre-pelvic scutes but no post-pelvic scutes, eight pelvic rays, a single (posterior) supra-maxilla, gillrakers present on posterior face of 3rd epibranchial, and posterior frontal fontanelles occluded in adults. A single species known.

2. Spratelloides malabaricus Day, 1873

= Dayella malabarica (Day, 1873)

Spratelloides malabaricus Day, 1873, Proc. zool. Soc. Lond.: 240 ('Sea, ascending rivers in Malabar, and attaining 3 inches in length'); Idem, 1878, Fishes of India: 648, pl. 161 (5) ('Western Coasts of India, in rivers and estuaries'; up to 3 inches, figure (? life size) 55.3 mm S.L.); Idem, 1889, Fauna British India, Fishes, 1: 400, fig. 124 (repeat).

MATERIAL.

- a. ZSI.2246, a fish 51·0 mm S.L., ex Malabar (stated to be basis for Day's figure although 4·3 mm shorter—LECTOTYPE)
- b. RMNH.2726, a fish 58 mm S.L., ex Malabar—PARALECTOTYPE

- c. BMNH.1889.2.1.2048, a fish 47·3 mm S.L., ex Malabar, stained with alizarin —PARALECTOTYPE
- d. Zool. Inst. Leningrad, 8220, a fish 48^o3 mm S.L., ex Canara —PARALECTOTYPE

The following specimens are Ehirava fluviatilis.

e. AMS.B8288, a fish 44·0 mm S.L. (52·0 mm tot. l.), ex Malabar (claimed as type by Whitley, 1958)

f. NMV (no specimens)

g. ZMB.10413, three fishes 28·9-35·4 mm S.L., ex Malabar.

h. BMNH.1889.2.1.2051, two fishes 40·0-49·1 mm S.L., ex Malabar (removed from jar containing BMNH. paralectotype)

BMNH.1889.2.1.2050, one fish 53.0 mm S.L., ex Malabar (also removed from

BMNH paralectotype jar)

j. BMNH.1889.2.1.2052-5, four fishes 46·5-56·2 mm S.L., ex Canara (one fish 50·0 mm stained with alizarin; three fishes donated to the Musée Royale de l'Afrique Centrale, Turvuren)

k. FMNH.2379, a fish 49.0 mm S.L., ex Canara (numbered 240 and donated by G.A. Boulenger from BMNH collection)

The two species included in the Day material are superficially very similar and hitherto Deraniyagala's fluviatilis has been considered a synonym of Day's malabaricus (e.g. in Whitehead, 1963). It was not until the single true specimen of Dayella malabarica in the British Museum was stained with alizarin and re-examined that the Day material was found to be mixed. Although specimens of E. fluviatilis predominate, Day's original description seems to have been based on D. malabarica since Day states that the 'dorsal commences slightly before the origin of the ventral'. In D. malabarica the dorsal origin is well before the pelvic base, the latter lying below the first branched dorsal ray. In E. fluviatilis the pelvic base is before, below or only just behind the first unbranched dorsal ray. The statement is repeated in Day's second description and in his figure (Day, 1878: pl. 161) the dorsal origin is clearly well before the pelvic base.

The specimen in Calcutta is slightly smaller than Day's figure but is presumed to have been the model and is here chosen as lectotype of *Spratelloides malabaricus*. The holotype of *Ehirava fluviatilis* Deraniyagala is in London (BMNH.1929.7.I.I); the specimen in the Zoological Survey of India (ZSI.F11043/I), claimed as a paratype by Menon & Yazdani (1963), is from Moratua (Western Province of Ceylon), a locality not mentioned in the original description.

DESCRIPTION. Based on the LECTOTYPE, a fish 51.0 mm S.L., ex Malabar, ZSI.2246 (basis for pl. 161 (5) of Fishes of India). Figures for the Leiden and British Museum specimens (49.5 and 47.3 mm S.L.—lots b and c above) are given in parenthesis.

Br. St. 6 (5, 5), D iii II (II, II), P i I2 (I2, I3), V i 7 (7, 7), A iii I5 (I4, I5), C n.r. (n.r., I0 + 9), g.r. II + 27 (I0 + 24, I0 + 27), scutes ? 0 (4, I), scales in lateral series 38 (n.r., 36), transverse 9 (n.r., n.r.), vertebrae 40 (BMNH alizarin specimen).

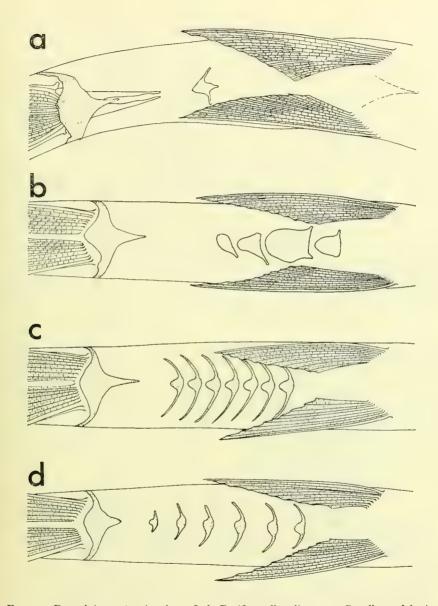


Fig. 1. Pre-pelvic scutes in three Indo-Pacific pellonulines. a. Dayella malabarica, 47.3 mm S.L., BMNH.1889.2.1.2048. b. Dayella malabarica, 49.5 mm S.L., RMNH.8585. c. Gilchristella aestuarius, 52.3 mm S.L., BMNH.1915.7.6.3. d. Ehirava fluviatilis, 49.1 mm S.L., BMNH.1889.2.1.2051.

In percentages of standard length: body depth 22.5 (20.0, 20.0), head length 27.7 (24.0, 26.0); snout length 8.3 (7.5, 7.4), eye diameter 8.3 (8.0, 7.8), post-orbital distance 9.9 (8.5, 8.7), length of upper jaw 9.9 (8.7, 9.7), length of lower jaw 14.7 (12.3, 13.1); pectoral fin length 16.7 (17.1, 15.8), pelvic fin length 13.7 (13.3, 14.5), length of anal base 18.6 (15.3, 14.5); pre-dorsal distance 49.0 (47.9, 48.5), pre-pelvic distance 52.9 (50.4, 49.5), pre-anal distance 78.4 (77.3, 75.0).

Body fairly compressed, its width almost 3 times in its depth, the latter a little less than head length; belly rounded, fully scaled but the scales underlain by 4 (Leiden) or I (BMNH) plate-like scutes bearing rudimentary lateral arms (fig. Ia, b), the scutes not reaching back to the main pelvic scute (which has normal lateral arms). Snout equal to or a little shorter than eye diameter. Jaws unequal, the lower projecting slightly. Upper jaw reaching to vertical from anterior eye border or anterior pupil margin, ventral expanded portion of maxilla beginning abruptly and not tapered smoothly into slender anterior limb of bone, the entire edge of the expanded portion finely denticulated (fig. 2); a single (posterior) supra-maxilla, the lower part of the expanded portion deeper and longer than the upper part (Harengula shape), its depth about ½ eye diameter. Lower jaw rising fairly steeply in the first third of its length; 6–7 small conical teeth on either side of symphysis. A single row of small conical teeth on pre-maxillae, separated by a median diastema. Fine teeth on tongue, scattered on antero-median process of palatine and along outer edge of that bone.

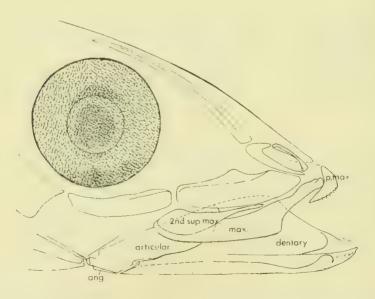


Fig. 2. Dayella malabarica, upper and lower jaws, alizarin stained specimen, 47·3 mm S.L., BMNH.1889.2.1.2048.

Gillrakers fine, slender, $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in eye diameter and a little longer than corresponding gill filaments; about 7 short, stumpy gillrakers on posterior face of 3rd eipibranchial. Pseudobranch present, exposed, about $\frac{1}{2}$ eye diameter, with about a dozen filaments. Cleithral lobe present at lower angle of gill opening, fairly well developed. Operculum about $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as deep as broad, its posterior margin with a deep indentation, its lower margin rising at an angle of about 15° to the horizontal; suboperculum rectangular except for rounding of postero-ventral angle. Cutaneous sensory canals branching over entire opercular series and cheek. Frontoparietal rea smooth, posterior frontal fontanelles retained and minute, $1 \cdot 0$ mm in length (oa·5 mm in BMNH specimen—fig. 3c; virtually occluded in Leiden specimen).

Dorsal fin origin nearer to snout tip than to caudal base by $\frac{3}{4}$ eye diameter and a little in advance of vertical from pelvic base. Pectoral fin tips failing to reach pelvic base by $I(I\frac{1}{2})$ eye diameters; no axillary scale. Pelvic fin base below first branched dorsal ray and about equidistant between pectoral base and anal origin; axillary scale present, about $\frac{1}{3}$ of fin length (Leiden specimens). Anal fin origin a little nearer to caudal base than to pelvic base; last two rays normal, not separated from rest of fin.

Scales: deeper than broad, with distinct anterior 'shoulders'; unexposed portion with a single continuous striation, preceded by 3-4 short radiating striae (absent on anterior scales, joined to form a loop on some posterior scales); exposed portion of scale without striae, its posterior margin slightly eroded and produced medially.

Colour: in alcohol, uniform light brown with a faint silvery midlateral stripe not quite as broad as eye; fins hyaline.

Note. The new genus Dayella is a member of the pellonuline complex that comprises the monotypic Indo-Pacific genera Ehirava, Gilchristella, Sauvagella and Spratellomorpha. These five genera are distinguished from all other Indo-Pacific pellonulines by their lack of post-pelvic scutes; in addition, pre-pelvic scutes are either absent or extremely poorly developed. The separation of the five species at generic level is arguable but the features that distinguish them are non-meristic and appear to be of some significance in other groups of clupeids. Dayella can be identified from the following key.

INDO-PACIFIC PELLONULINAE THAT LACK POST-PELVIC SCUTES

- I. Anal fin entire, last two rays not separate
 - A. Gillrakers present on posterior face of 3rd epibranchial
 - I. Posterior frontal fontanelles minute (\{\frac{1}{2}}\) eye diameter) or completely occluded in adults (fig. 3c); pre-pelvic scutes I-4, rudimentary, lateral arms barely developed (fig. Ia, b); pelvic base well behind dorsal origin; gillrakers 24-27

Dayella malabarica (Day)

- 2. Posterior frontal fontanelles larger $(\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{2})$ eye diameter), retained in adults (fig. 3a, b); pelvic base before dorsal origin
 - a. No pre-pelvic scutes; gillrakers 19 (at 40 mm S.L.)

 Sauvagella madagascariensis (Sauvage)

- b. Up to 9 pre-pelvic scutes, with thin lateral arms
 - i. Anterior arm of supra-occipital broadening anteriorly (fig. 3b); gillrakers 39-45

Gilchristella aestuarius (Gilchrist)

ii. Anterior arm of supra-occipital very slender anteriorly (fig. 3a); gillrakers 40-60

Gilchristella sp. (see below)

- II. Anal fin split, the last two rays separate from rest of fin; gillrakers present on posterior face of 3rd epibranchial; posterior frontal fontanelles large, probably retained in adults, similar to those of Ehirava; gillrakers 26-31
 Spratellomorpha bianalis (Bertin)

The four previously described Indo-Pacific genera were formerly placed in the round herrings or Dussumieriidae (Whitehead, 1063). The subsequent discovery of partially scuted (Laeviscutella, Sierrathrissa) or non-scuted (Congothrissa) forms amongst the otherwise fully scuted West African Pellonulinae suggested that both Indo-Pacific and African genera were members of a clupeid group that showed progressive stages in scute loss. This appeared to be correlated with trends towards reduction in supra-maxillae and numbers of branchiostegal rays, together with a retention of the posterior frontal fontanelles by adults (Poll, Whitehead & Hopson, 1065). The non-scuted genera Spratelloides (Indo-Pacific) and Jenkinsia (Western Atlantic) may eventually join this group, although their very characteristic W-shaped pelvic scute seems to link them with the 'true' round herrings Dussumieria and Etrumeus—whose high and presumably primitive branchiostegal count implies yet another route to scute loss (or perhaps the primitive absence of scutes, at least in this branch of the clupeids). For the present, the five poorly or non-scuted genera shown in the key above are placed in the tribe Ehiravini of the subfamily Pellonulinae.

In Dayella, the scutes are more rudimentary than in any other clupeid genus. They are thin, difficult to find in unstained material and those with small lateral arms could easily be mistaken for scales. Their resemblance to scales is increased by the relatively large size of the expanded portion of the scute when compared with those of other genera (fig. 1a-d). The variation in shape of these scutes implies that these are structures on the way to being lost and not an early stage in the evolution of scutes.

Dayella appears to be most closely allied to Gilchristella, Sauvagella and Ehirava, differing from them chiefly in its occluded posterior frontal fontanelles and its less advanced pelvic base. The absence of gillrakers on the posterior face of the 3rd eipibranchial seems to hold some significance elsewhere in the Clupeidae, but this

may not mean that *Ehirava* is necessarily remote from the other genera of the group. The status of *Sauvagella madagascariensis* is uncertain. Re-examination of a syntype of this species (40 mm S.L., MNHN.3794) has confirmed that even the rudimentary scutes of *Dayella* are not present. This fish has only 19 gillrakers and the posterior frontal fontanelles are large, suggesting that it is a juvenile; gillrakers may increase with size. In a redescription of the species (Whitehead, 1963), eleven South African specimens were included, from the Buffalo river, Cape Province (BMNH.1878.1.22.25 and 33–43) and the stated gillraker count of 40–56 referred to these specimens only. Careful removal of the belly scales now shows that these fishes have up to 7 thin and barely apparent scutes with fairly long lateral arms. Thus, they are clearly distinct from *Sauvagella* (as far as can be judged from the very small types) and for the moment they appear to be an undescribed species of *Gilchristella*. From *G. aestuarius* they differ, however, in having a very slender

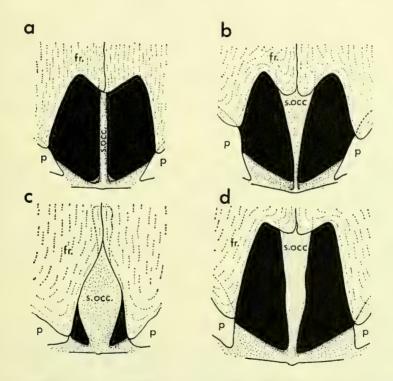


Fig. 3. Posterior frontal fontanelles in four Indo-Pacific pellonulines, dorsal view showing frontals (fr.), parietals (p.) and anterior arm of supra-occipital (s. occ.), the fontanelles black. a. Gilchristella sp., 52.6 mm S.L., anomalous Buffalo River specimen, BMNH.1878.1.22.25. b. Gilchristella aestuarius, 54.5 mm S.L., BMNH.1919.9.12.3. c. Dayella malabarica, 47.3 mm S.L., BMNH.1889.2.1.2048. d. Ehirava fluviatilis, 50.0 mm S.L., BMNH.1889.2.1.2052.

anterior arm of the supra-occipital (fig. 3a) and a higher gillraker count (40-60 cf. 39-45). In general, the members of the Ehirava complex are rather poorly known and would repay further study when more specimens are available.

(Subfamily ALOSINAE)

3. Clupea variegata Day, 1869

= Gudusia variegata (Day, 1869)

(Plate Ic)

Clupea variegata Day, 1869, Proc. zool. Soc. Lond.: 623 (Irrawaddy and its branches; many specimens, to 7 inches); Idem, 1878, Fishes of India: 639, pl. 161 (4) (repeat; figure of fish 152 mm S.L., presumably life-size); Idem, 1889, Fauna British India, Fishes, 1: 375

(repeat).

Gudusia variegata: Regan, 1917, Ann. Mag. nat. Hist., (8) 19: 308 (on single Day specimen in British Museum); Motwani, Jayaram & Sehgal, 1962, Trop. Ecol., 3 (1-2): 17-43 (Brahmaputra at Jogighopa, Goalpara District); Whitehead, 1965, Bull. Br. Mus. nat. Hist. (Zool.), 12 (4): 150, fig. 11 (Day specimen redescribed; Day's figure reproduced); Idem, (in press), Symp, Indian Ocean Adj. Seas. Mar. biol. Ass. India (key, note on synonymy).

? Clupea suhia Chaudhuri, 1912, Rec. Indian Mus., 7: 436, pl. 38 (1) (river Gandak in Saran,

? Gudusia godanahiai Srivastava, 1968, Fishes Eastern Uttar Pradesh: 6, fig. 4a, b (Gorakhpur, Uttar Pradesh).

MATERIAL.

a. ZSI.2245, a fish 150.0 mm S.L., ex Irrawaddy river (stated to be basis for Day's figure—LECTOTYPE)

b. ZSI (Duplicate Cat.) 43, a fish 158 mm S.L., ex Bassein river (labelled Clupea burmanica)

- c. ZSI. (Duplicate Cat.) 168, a fish 78 mm S.L., ex Mandalay, coll. Major E. B. Sladen (labelled Clupea burmanica)
- d. AMS.B7676, a fish 158.5 mm S.L. (191 mm tot. l.), ex Bassein (claimed as type by Whitley, 1958.

e. NHMV (no specimens)

f. RMNH.2586, a fish 106.4 mm S.L., ex Bassein.

g. ZMB (no specimens)

h. BMNH.1870.6.14.38, a fish 155 mm S.L., ex Bassein.

For reasons given under the previous two species, the figured specimen in Calcutta is chosen as lectotype. The two specimens labelled 'burmanica' are G. variegata but are probably not syntypes since their meristic counts exceed the values given in the original description (but are consistent with the ranges given in the Fishes of India). Day did not publish the name burmanica but may have initially intended to use it for this species. The British Museum specimen, although presented in 1870 and thus the first of this species to be given away by Day, has too low an anal and pectoral count (iii 22 and i 13; cf. iii 26 and i 15) to have figured in the original description, which in any case seems to have been based on a single specimen (although many were taken). For this reason, the Sydney and Leiden specimens cannot be regarded as paralectotypes.

DESCRIPTION. Based on the LECTOTYPE, a fish 150.0 mm S.L., ex Irrawaddy river, ZSI.2245 (basis for pl. 161 (4) of Fishes of India).

Br. St. 6, D iii 12, P i 15, V i 7, A iii 26, g.r. 210 (approx.), scutes 19 + 11, scales in lateral series 90, transverse 35.

In percentages of standard length: body depth 44·3, head length 29·3; snout length 5·5, eye diameter 6·7, length of upper jaw 11·7, length of lower jaw 13·0, operculum height 14·3, its breadth 8·3; pectoral fin length 20·0, pelvic fin length 10·0, length of anal fin base 23·0; pre-dorsal distance 52·0, pre-pelvic distance 54·7,

pre-anal distance 74.0.

Body strongly compressed, its width $3\frac{3}{5}$ times in its depth, the latter $1\frac{1}{2}$ times head length; belly keeled, tips of scutes projecting slightly from sheath of scales on either side. Snout shorter than eye diameter; pre-orbital distance (including eye) $\frac{3}{4}$ of post-orbital distance. Lower jaw included when mouth closed; premaxillae rising steeply to form very distinct notch in upper jaw. Maxilla reaching to just beyond vertical from eye centre, expanded portion without longitudinal ridges or striae and smooth along lower edge; two supra-maxillae, the 1st (anterior) about 6 times as long as deep and almost equal in length to eye diameter, the 2nd (posterior) with slender anterior shaft and lower part of expanded portion larger than upper. Lower jaw rising rather gently in the first third of its length, its depth about 3 times in its length; no teeth present. No teeth in upper jaw nor within mouth.

Gillrakers fine, straight or slightly curved, slightly longer than corresponding filaments; filaments of anterior hemibranch of 1st arch $\frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{4}$ length of those of posterior hemibranch; many fine gillrakers present on posterior face of 3rd epibranchial. Medio-pharyngobranchial present, about $\frac{3}{4}$ eye diameter, bearing many short gillrakers. Pseudobranch present, attenuated, about $\frac{1}{3}$ times eye diameter, with distinct ventral ridge and a groove below it. Cleithral lobe barely developed, hardly breaking outline of gill opening. Operculum not quite twice as deep as broad, its lower edge rising steeply; sub-operculum crescentic; lower third of anterior operculum margin not overlapped by pre-operculum, leaving a small triangular area covered only by skin. Cutaneous sensory canals branching through the adipose tissue covering the suborbitals, operculum, sub-operculum and scales behind head. Adipose eye-lid with vertical slit exposing $\frac{3}{4}$ of pupil. Dorsal surface of head covered by fairly thick skin but a pair of cuneiform fronto-parietal areas with about six longitudinal striae left exposed.

Dorsal fin origin slightly nearer to snout tip than to base of caudal; a very low scaly sheath along base. Pectoral fin tips failing to reach pelvic base by about ½ eye diameter; axillary scale present, half length of fin. Pelvic fin base below vertical from dorsal origin and a little nearer to pectoral base than to anal origin; axillary scale present, half length of fin. Anal origin equidistant between pelvic and caudal bases; anal base longer than pectoral fins and greater than the distance

snout tip to posterior border of pre-operculum. Caudal fin (broken) slightly longer than head length, lower lobe longer than upper.

Scales: almost circular, but becoming more elongate on posterior part of body; a single vertical striation continuous across scale, preceded by o (anterior scales) to 3 (posterior scales) short and irregular striae interrupted at centre of scale; exposed border irregular, becoming pectinate in posterior scales. Minute scales covering caudal except for hind border.

Colour: in alcohol, back brown, flanks golden; a series of brown spots along upper flank, some expanded vertically, those behind dorsal extending right across back; a dark humeral spot.

Note. The genus *Gudusia* (often misspelt *Gadusia* in the literature) at present includes two species, *G. chapra* (Ham. Buch.) and *G. variegata*. The latter has a deeper body (depth greater than 40% of S.L.), a shorter head (head length less than 28% of S.L.), and more anal finrays (iii 22-26; cf. iii 19-22). In addition, *G. variegata* has a very prominent series of black spots along the flank, whereas *G. chapra* is usually described as having a dark shoulder spot, sometimes absent, and faint or no spots along the flank (Whitehead, 1965; Srivastava, 1968). Rather few specimens of *G. variegata* have been described, however, and some of these were misidentifications. Thus, specimens identified as *G. variegata* from Akyab by Lloyd (1907) include at least one fish (ZSI.1491/I) that is *Hilsa kelee*, while juveniles reported as *G. variegata* from the Mandalay fish market by Jenkins (1910) include specimens (ZSI.1770/I) of a species of *Hilsa (Tenualosa*).

Gudusia variegata is usually considered a Burmese species (Regan, 1917b; Fowler, 1941: 635), but both Chandhuri's Clupea suhia and Srivastava's Gudusia godanahiai (Ganges drainage) had very prominent black spots along the flanks which were, indeed, the main reason for distinguishing these nominal species from the sympatric and unspotted G. chapra (not a sexual feature according to Srivastava, 1968). Gudusia variegata has also been reported from the Brahmaputra, by Motwani et alii (1962), presumably because of the strong pattern of spots since G. chapra was also recorded from the same area (no descriptions given, however). If these Indian records truly relate to G. variegata, then some modification must be made to the key since Srivastava's G. godanahiai were rather slender (depth 33·3-38·7% of S.L.) and thus within the range of G. chapra (31.0-40.0% in 30 specimens—Whitehead, 1965: fig. 13); the head length (27.4-31.7% of S.L.) of Srivastava's specimens, however, agreed with current definitions of G. variegata, but the low anal count of ii-iii 20 was that of G. chapra. Srivastava distinguished his new species by the presence of 14 pectoral rays (13 in his G. chapra), but Regan (1917b) recorded 13-14 pectoral rays in the British Museum material of G. chapra and there is probably overlap between the two species. For the present, the status of G. variegata and its possible synonyms must remain uncertain until more material has been examined.

(Subfamily **DOROSOMATINAE**)

4. Chatoessus modestus Day, 1869

= Gonialosa modesta (Day, 1869)

Chatoessus modestus Day, 1869, Proc. zool. Soc. Lond.: 622 (Bassein river as high as Een-gay-gyee Lake; many specimens, up to 5½ inches); Idem, 1878, Fishes of India: 633, pl. 160 (1) (also Selwein at Moulmein; figure of fish 100·1 mm S.L., ? life size); Idem, 1889, Fauna British India, Fishes, 1: 386 (repeat).

Gonialosa modesta: Regan, 1917, Ann. Mag. nat. Hist., (8) 19: 315 (on Day material in British Museum); Menon & Yazdani, 1963, Rec. 2001. Surv. India, 61: 98.

MATERIAL.

a. ZSI.2695, a fish 98.0 mm S.L., ex Bassein river (stated to be basis for Day's figure—LECTOTYPE)

b. ZSI.F8022/1 and 8023/1, two fishes 58·0-101·0 mm S.L., ex Bassein river

(=G. manminna)

c. AMS.B7637, a fish 105.0 mm S.L. (127.5 mm tot. l.), ex Burma (claimed as type by Whitley)

d. NHMV (no specimens)

e. RMNH.2585, a fish 116.0 mm S.L., ex Moulmein (claimed as type in register)

f. ZMB (no specimens)

g. BMNH.1889.2.1.1879, a fish 82.6 mm S.L., ex Burma

Menon & Yazdani (1963) erroneously listed the first of the three Zoological Survey fishes as holotype, and the other two as paratypes, but Day did not indicate a holotype nor did he give an exact length measurement. The first Calcutta specimen, used for Day's figure, is here designated lectotype; the other two are G. manminna and thus do not agree with the original description, which in any case shows no ranges for meristic and morphometric values, suggesting that only a single fish was measured (although many were caught). For this reason, the Sydney, Leiden and London specimens are not regarded as paralectotypes.

DESCRIPTION. Based on the LECTOTYPE, a fish 98.0 mm S.L., ex Bassein river, ZSI.2695 (basis for pl. 160 (1) of Fishes of India).

Br. St. 6, D iii 13, P i 15, V i 7, A iii 25, g.r. 150 (approx.), scutes 17 + 12, scales

in lateral series 47, transverse 17.

In percentages of standard length: body depth 48.5, head length 27.6; snout length 6.4, eye diameter 7.9, post-orbital distance 13.3, length of upper jaw 7.1, length of lower jaw 9.7; pectoral fin length 23.0, pelvic fin length 10.2, length of anal base 26.8; pre-dorsal distance 52.0, pre-pelvic distance 50.0, pre-anal distance 72.4.

Body compressed, its width $4\frac{7}{10}$ times in its depth, the latter almost twice head length; belly keeled, tips of scutes projecting below scaly sheath; profile of back concave beyond nape, rising abruptly to dorsal origin, belly profile evenly convex. Snout shorter than eye diameter. Mouth sub-terminal, transverse, with snout projecting strongly; pre-maxillae meeting at an angle to form a distinct notch in

upper jaw. Maxilla slender, slightly expanded and curved downwards distally, reaching to vertical from anterior border of eye; a single narrow supra-maxilla, its length 2·5 mm and depth o·5 mm. Lower jaw with dentaries meeting at an obtuse angle, the edge of each dentary flared or reflected outwards in front of tips of maxillae. No teeth in jaws.

Gillrakers very fine, close-set, shorter than corresponding gill filaments and slightly more than $\frac{1}{3}$ eye diameter; gill filaments of anterior hemibranch equal to those of posterior hemibranch. Numerous fine and close-set gillrakers on posterior face of 3rd epibranchial. Pseudobranch present, exposed, its length almost one eye diameter; about 20 filaments present. Cleithral lobe present, breaking outline of gill opening but not strongly developed. Operculum $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as deep as broad, its lower border rising steeply (about 40°); suboperculum long and narrow, its posterior border rounded. Cutaneous sensory canals branching over cheek, opercular series and nape. Adipose eye-lid with vertical slit exposing $\frac{1}{3}$ of eye. Dorsal surface of head with a pair of cuneiform fronto-parietal areas bearing 6 longitudinal striae, the two areas linked posteriorly by a transverse bony ridge.

Dorsal fin origin slightly nearer to snout than to base of caudal fin; final finray not elongated. Pectoral fin tips reaching to beyond pelvic base; axillary scale present, \(\frac{1}{4}\) length of fin. Pelvic fin base in front of dorsal origin and nearer to pectoral base than to anal origin; axillary scale present, \(\frac{1}{3}\) length of fin. Anal origin nearer to pelvic than to caudal base. Lower lobe of caudal larger than upper.

Scales: unexposed portion with one major vertical striation and 3 (anterior scales) to 4–5 (posterior) minor vertical striae interrupted at scale centre. Exposed portion without striae, posterior margin of scale not eroded, perforated or fimbriated.

Colour: in alcohol, upper parts of body light brown, lower parts silvery; a dark humeral spot present. Fins hyaline.

Note. The two species of Gonialosa, G. modesta and G. manminna (Ham. Buch.), have been separated on body depth (40–50% of S.L. in modesta; 30–39% in manminna) and number of scales along the flank (45–47 and 55–65 respectively—Whitehead, 1962; in press). Gudusia manminna (from the Ganges and Brahmaputra and their tributaries) is fairly well represented in collections and the literature, but G. modesta (recorded only from Burma) is not. Larger collections may show modesta to be merely a subspecies of G. manminna.

(Subfamily PRISTIGASTERINAE)

5. Pellona sladeni Day, 1869

= Ilisha sladeni (Day, 1869)

Pellona sladeni Day, 1869, Proc. zool. Soc. Lond.: 623 (Irrawaddy at Mandalay; specimens up to 7 inches); Idem, 1878, Fishes of India: 645, pl. 164 (1) (repeat; 'A single example obtained, 7 inches in length'; figure shows fish of 146 mm S.L.); Idem, 1889, Fauna British India, Fishes, 1: 383 (repeat).

Ilisha sladeni: Norman, 1923, Ann. Mag. nat. Hist., (9), 11:6 (Day specimen and two others

described).

MATERIAL.

- a. ZSI.2672, a fish 210 mm S.L. (ca. 10 inches tot. l.), ex Irrawaddy (stated to be basis for Day's figure—LECTOTYPE)
- ZSI (Duplicate Cat.) 298, a fish 189 mm S.L. (ca. 8½ inches tot. l.), ex Mandalay
 (? PARALECTOTYPE)
- c. AMS (no specimens)
- d. NHMV (no specimens)
- e. RMNH (no specimens)
- f. ZMB (no specimens)
- g. BMNH.1870.6.14.36, a fish 209 mm S.L. (almost 10 inches tot. l.), ex Mandalay.

As in previous cases, Day clearly collected more than one specimen, but he gave no ranges for meristic or morphometric values in his original description. In the Fishes of India, however, he stated 'single example obtained'; he may perhaps have been referring to the fish that he himself had drawn for the Fishes of India, since it was now eight years since he had given his other specimen to the British Museum. All three extant specimens are larger than either the figure or the maximum length stated (7 inches). They also differ in having more pre-pelvic scutes (23 or 24; cf. 20) and more pectoral rays (14 or 15; cf. 11). Day altered his scute count to 23 in the Fishes of India (but not the pectoral count) and it must be presumed that the earlier counts were errors. The larger Calcutta fish, the figured specimen, is chosen as lectotype, on the assumption either that Day lost the original (smaller) specimen or that the maximum length of 7 inches was also an error.

DESCRIPTION. Based on the LECTOTYPE, a fish 210 mm S.L., ex Irrawaddy river, ZSI.2672 (basis for pl. 164 (1) of Fishes of India) (measurements of ZSI paralectotype given in parenthesis).

Br. St. 6, D iii 10, P i 13, V i 6, A iii 41, g.r. 10 + 1 + 21, scutes 23 + 10, scales in lateral series 48, transverse 10.

In percentages of standard length: body depth 21·9 (25·4), head length, 24·5 (27·5); snout length 5·5 (5·8), eye diameter 6·0 (6·6), length of upper jaw 11·0 (11·9), length of lower jaw 11·4 (13·0); pectoral fin length 19·8 (21·7), pelvic fin length 4·8 (6·6), length of anal fin base 30·0 (29·4); pre-dorsal distance 59·1 (59·3), pre-pelvic distance 39·1 (44·0), pre-anal distance 65·2 (67·2).

Body strongly compressed, its width 4 times in its depth, belly strongly keeled, the tips of the scutes projecting below scaly sheath, especially behind pelvic fin base; anterior four scutes on isthmus. Dorsal profile slightly concave before nape, ventral profile evenly convex, the two almost parallel between pectoral base and dorsal origin. Snout a little shorter than eye diameter. Lower jaw strongly projecting, about ½ eye diameter beyond snout when mouth closed. Maxilla reaching to vertical from anterior pupil border, fine denticulations along its lower edge; no hypo-maxilla; two supra-maxillae, the 1st (anterior) 5 times longer than deep and about 1½ eye diameter, the 2nd (posterior) with lower lobe of expanded portion much larger than upper. A single series of fine teeth on pre-maxillae, with median diastema, small conical teeth present on either side of dentary symphysis. No teeth on vomer but fine teeth on tongue, palatines and ecto- and endo-pterygoids.

Gillrakers fairly slender, the longest $\frac{1}{2}$ eye diameter and $1\frac{1}{2}$ times length of corresponding gill filaments; no gillrakers on posterior face of 3rd epibranchial. Pseudobranch present, exposed, its length $\frac{1}{2}$ eye diameter; ventral margin not ridged. No cleithral lobe. Operculum elongated posteriorly, its ventral margin equal to its height and rising at an angle of about 20° ; sub-operculum eliptical, long and narrow, its height $3\frac{7}{10}$ times in its width; lower border of sub-operculum and hind border of inter-operculum almost parallel to upper profile of head, to leave a broad triangular area below (bounded posteriorly by base of pectoral fin). Dorsal surface of head with two prominent longitudinal striae, diverging slightly posteriorly, flanked by two small lateral striae over eyes.

Dorsal fin origin set far back on body, equidistant between caudal base and posterior margin of operculum. Pectoral fin tips reaching almost to tips of pelvics; axillary scale present, $\frac{1}{3}$ length of fin. Pelvic base nearer to pectoral base than to anal origin by 2 eye diameters; axillary scale present, about $\frac{1}{3}$ length of fin. Anal fin origin below vertical from anterior third of dorsal base; base of fin covered by low scaly sheath.

Scales: unexposed portion with a single complete W-shaped vertical striation, preceded by 3 (anterior scales) to 6 (posterior) shorter striae interrupted at centre of scale; exposed portion with about 16 very short radiating striae at edge of scale, not discernible in posterior scales.

Colour: in alcohol, upper $\frac{1}{3}$ of body brown, rest of flanks silvery; fins hyaline, hind margin of caudal dusky. Inner face of operculum slightly dusky.

NOTE. Ilisha sladeni closely resembles I. pristigastroides (Bleeker), with which it has been synonymized (Whitehead, 1970), but comparison of Day's material with Bleeker's type in the British Museum (1867.11.28.12—redescribed in Whitehead et alii, 1966) suggests that I. sladeni is distinct. In both species the anal origin is well before the vertical from the midpoint of the dorsal base, a feature used in keys to separate these species from all other Ilisha (Whitehead et alii, loc, cit.; Whitehead, 1970). The type of *I. pristigastroides* is a smaller fish (151 mm S.L.; cf. 189-210 mm in the Day material), but this does not account for its deeper body (30.8% of S.L.; cf. 21.9, 25.4 and 22.4% in the Day material) since a larger Bleeker specimen (302 mm S.L., BMNH.1867.11.28.9) is still deeper-bodied (30.9% of S.L.) than a similar large specimen of I. sladeni (25.9% in a fish of 308 mm S.L., ex Sittang river, Burma, BMNH.1891.11.30.402). The Bleeker type also has a relatively longer anal base (41.1% of S.L.; cf. 30.0, 29.4 and 30.8%), the anal origin being set further back on the body (equidistant between caudal base and eye centre; cf. nearer to caudal base than to pectoral base), and the dorsal origin is also correspondingly less far back on the body. In spite of the more compact body in I. pristigastroides, there are more pre-pelvic scutes (26) than in the elongate I. sladeni (23-24). All these features also serve to separate the two larger specimens mentioned above.

A striking feature of *I. sladeni*, to some extent shared by the type of *I. pristigastroides*, is the very elongate appearance of the head, shown well in Day's drawing (see Pl. 2). This is partly due to the length of the head but more particularly to

the more squat operculum (its height just over $2\frac{1}{2}$ times in head length; cf. $2-2\frac{1}{4}$ times in other species). Also, the depth of the head, taken at right angles to the profile at the occiput, is much less ($1\frac{2}{3}$ times in head length) than in other species ($1\frac{1}{4}$)

1½ times).

A further difference between *I. sladeni* and *I. pristigastroides* is in the form of the swimbladder. In *I. sladeni* the swimbladder terminates at the posterior end of the body cavity (BMNH specimens of 209 and 308 mm S.L.), whereas in *I. pristigastroides* there is a postcoelomic, tapering prolongation down the right side of the body lateral to both the haemal spines and the anal pterygiophores and reaching as far as the level of the 15th branched anal ray. The condition in *I. sladeni* appears to be unique amongst Indo-Pacific members of *Ilisha* but it is found in the South American *I. furthii* (and probably also in the related *I. amazonica*—no BMNH specimens). The asymmetrical postcoelomic prolongation in *I. pristigastroides* is similar to that found in the Indo-Pacific *I. elongata* and *I. megaloptera*; in *I. africana* (West Africa) and *I. indica* (Indian Ocean) the prolongation of the swimbladder is bifid.

Family ENGRAULIDAE

6. Engraulis auratus Day, 1865

= Thryssa dussumieri (Valenciennes, 1848)

(Plate 2)

Engraulis dussumieri Valenciennes, 1848, Hist. Nat. Poiss., 21:69 (no locality; putative neotype described by Whitehead, 1967:142); Day, 1878, Fishes of India: 627, pl. 158 (4) (E. auratus in synonymy); Idem, 1889, Fauna British India, Fishes, 1:391.

Thryssa dussumieri: Whitehead (in press), Symp. Indian Ocean Adj. Seas. Mar. biol. Ass.

India (key, synopsis, fig.).

Engraulis auratus Day, 1865, Proc. zool. Soc. Lond.: 312 (Cochin on Malabar coast; on specimen $4^{+0.0}_{-0.0}$ inches = 117 mm); Idem, 1865, Fishes of Malabar: 238, pl. 19 (2) (repeat; fig. (? life-size) $4^{+0.0}_{-0.0}$ inches = 114.7 mm tot. l.).

MATERIAL.

a. ZSI (no specimens)

- b. AMS (no specimens and none in *Great Fisheries Exhibition Catalogue* by Day, 1883)
- c. NHMV (no specimens)
- d. RMNH (no specimens)

e. ZMB.10412, a fish 89·7 mm S.L. (109·2 mm tot. 1.), ex Bombay

f. BMNH.1867.5.30.13, a fish 83·1 mm S.L. (99·4 mm tot.1., caudal lobes damaged, estimated 103·3 mm), ex Madras, coll. Day

g. BMNH.1889.2.1.1779, a fish 90.6 mm S.L. (112.7 mm tot. l., caudal complete), ex Malabar, coll. Day (outside label altered from E. auratus to mystax Gthr.) (label inside jar, Engraulis auratus Malabar), LECTOTYPE

h. BMNH.1889.2.1.1780, a fish 55.2 mm S.L. (68.9 mm tot. l., caudal complete), ex Canara, coll. Day (label in jar, Engraulis auratus Canara)

In the Fishes of Malabar (p. vi) it is stated that a specimen of E. auratus had been deposited in the East India Museum (but apparently not in the British Museum). Manuscript catalogues and lists of zoological material presented to the museum of the East India Company are now in the British Museum (Natural History). One list of fishes is headed 'The following families are from Day's Malabar Fishes' and it includes Engraulis auratus from Malabar (preceded by the number 5, which seems to be an indication of the number of specimens). When the India Museum was dispersed in 1879, at least two of Day's presentations (birds and fish skins) were sent back to Day. Since no fishes were given to the British Museum at that time, Day probably also received back his spirit specimens, including Engraulis auratus. It is possible, therefore, that the specimen (or one of them) is that now in London and presented in 1889 (specimen g above).

There is a discrepancy of 2·3 mm between the length of the single specimen described in the original description and the length of the figure, which suggests that the figure was not exactly life-size. Since all four extant specimens are too small and there can be no certainty which, if any, contributed to the original description, we have chosen the British Museum Malabar specimen (g above) as lecto-

type.

DESCRIPTION. Based on the LECTOTYPE, a fish 90-6 mm S.L. (112-7 mm tot. l.) in good condition, ex Malabar, BMNH.1889.2.1.1779.

Br. St. 11, D I iii 10, P i 11, V i 6, A iii 32, g.r. 15 + 18, scutes 15 + 7.

In percentages of standard length: body depth 27.8, head length 26.9; snout length 3.6, eye diameter 6.4, length of upper jaw 41.1, length of lower jaw 19.3; pectoral fin length 18.1, pelvic fin length 11.1, length of anal base 33.0; pre-dorsal distance

49.0, pre-pelvic distance 42.2, pre-anal distance 59.3.

Body compressed, its width 3 times in its depth, the latter only slightly greater than head length; belly not strongly keeled, all but tips of scutes concealed by scaly sheath; head profile rising steeply from snout to nape and then more gradually to dorsal origin, belly profile evenly convex. Snout short, about $\frac{2}{3}$ eye diameter. Upper jaw very long, the right maxilla pointed posteriorly, reaching to pelvic base and about $\frac{4}{5}$ along pectoral fin (tip of left maxilla broken off); expanded portion of maxilla tapering rapidly behind 2nd supra-maxilla but with a membrane along upper edge; 2nd (posterior) supra-maxilla with upper part of expanded portion larger than lower; no 1st (anterior) supra-maxilla. Dentary symphysis below midpoint between eye and tip of snout; articulation of lower jaw $\frac{1}{2}$ eye diameter behind 2nd supra-maxilla. A single series of fine conical teeth on dentaries, pre-maxillae and along lower edges of maxillae except near tip; two (right) and three (left) conical teeth on vomer; fine granular teeth on tongue, palatines and on endo- and ecto-pterygoids.

Gillrakers fine, slender, the longest 1½ times length of corresponding gill filaments and almost equal to eye diameter; 8 short, triangular rakers on posterior face of 3rd epibranchial: gillraker serrae on both 1st and 2nd arches in distinct clumps,

with the longest serae in the middle of each clump. Pseudobranch present, concealed by skin but with small posterior opening. Isthmus silvery, not bearing anterior members of scute series, tapering evenly to just behind posterior margin of branchiostegal membrane. Operculum $3\frac{1}{2}$ times as deep as broad, its posterior margin evenly rounded and not completely covering gill opening. Dorsal surface of head covered by thick layer of skin with numerous pores; posterior frontal fontanelles present, long and narrow, $2 \cdot 1$ mm by $0 \cdot 5$ mm (right).

Dorsal fin origin nearer to snout than to caudal base by I eye diameter; fin preceded by a small scute-like plate bearing a retrorse spine. Pectoral fin reaching just over $\frac{2}{3}$ along pelvic fin; axillary scale present, just over half length of fin. Pelvic fin base I eye diameter before vertical from dorsal origin and much nearer to pectoral base than to anal origin; axillary scale present, $\frac{4}{5}$ length of fin; a second triangular scale present, below fin, $\frac{1}{2}$ length of fin. Anal origin $\frac{3}{4}$ eye diameter behind vertical from last dorsal ray. Caudal peduncle a little deeper than long.

Scales: distinct anterior and posterior 'shoulders' to scale; unexposed portion with 10–12 irregular vertical striae, not interrupted at centre of scale, exposed portion with one semicircular striation but more frequently reticulated, especially in posterior scales, the reticulations finally covering the whole scale. Many elongate scales at base of caudal but no true alar scales.

Colour: general body colour silvery/gold, but brown where scales lost; dark brown venulose humeral area with peppering of dark pigment across back (as in Day's figure—see Pl. 2c). Fins hyaline except for narrow dark posterior border to caudal.

NOTE. The long maxilla, absence of the 1st supra-maxilla and distinct clumping of the gillraker serrae are characteristic of *Thryssa dussumieri* (descriptions in Whitehead, 1967: 142, fig. 14c and 1968: 23, fig. 2a), and Day (1878) later placed his *auratus* in the synonymy of that species.

TABLE I

The clupeoid fishes in Day's Fishes of India and Day material in Calcutta, Sydney, London, Vienna, Berlin and Leiden

*present in collection (registration number given for possible types)

Rijksmus., Leiden	*		(as elopsoides)		*	٠			*	54 RMNH.2519 95a)		
Zool. Mus., Berlin	*	•			*				*	ZMB.10554 (as venenosa)		
Naturhist. Mus., Vienna				•			*	*	*		*	ŀ
Brit. Mus., London	*	*		(as moluccensis)	*		*		*	BNMH.1889 2.1.1919-24		(aiso as argyrotaenia)
Austr. Mus., Sydney	*	*	*	*	*			*	*	AMS.B7642	*	•
Zool. Survey, Calcutta	*	*	*	*	*		*		*	ZSI.2630	4	•
Identification	Chirocentrus dorab (Forssk., 1775)	Dussumieria acuta Val., 1847	Dussumieria acuta Val., 1847	Herklotsichthys punctatus (Rupp., 1837)	Sardinella longiceps Val., 1847	Sardinella melanura	Sardinella melanura (Cuv., 1829)	Sardinella brachysoma	Sardinella fimbriata (Val., 1847)	Sardinella sindensis (Day, 1878)	Sardinella leiogaster Val., 1847	Escualosa thoracata (Val., 1847)
fig.	652 166 (3)	647 166 (4)	647 166 (5)	636 163 (1)	161 (2)	1	636 164 (5)	163 (3)	161 (3)	638 163 (2)	1 3	638 162 (I)
page	652	647	647	636	637	641	636	635	637	638	636	638
Species in Fishes of India	CHIROCENTRIDAE Chirocentrus dorab	CLUPEIDAE (Dussumieriinae) Dussumieria acuta	Dussumieria hasseltii	(Clupeinae) Clupea klunzei	Clupea longiceps	Clupea melanura	Clupea atricauda	Clupea brachysoma	Clupea simbriata	Clupea sındensıs	Clupea leiogaster	Clupea lile

*	RMNH.2726		*		*	RMNH.2586		* +	*	KMINH.2585	,	•			
	(see also p. 85) ZMB.10413	*	*	*	*		,	• ,	•						
	(se		*	*			4		,	*	*		*		
*		2.1.2050-5	*	*	*	AMS.B7676 BMNH.1870.	6.14.38	(accompany)	(as contins) AMS B7627 BMNH 1882	2.1.1879	٠		*	(as ditchoa)	• •
*	AMS.B8288	*	*	*	*	AMS.B7676	N		AMS B7627	*			*	(as ditchoa)	
	ZSI.2246		*	*	*	ZSI.2245	*	*	ZSI.2605	*	*		*	*	*
Corica soborna Ham Buch 1822	D E	H	(Cuv., 1829) Hilsa ilisha	(Ham. Buch., 1822) Hilsa toli	(Val., 1847) Gudusia chapra	(Ham. Buch., 1822) Gudusia variegata (Day 1860)	×		(Ham. Buch., 1822) Gonialosa modesta	(Day, 1869) Anodontostoma chacunda	(Ham. Buch., 1822) Pellona ditchela	Val., 1847 Pellona ditchela	Val., 1847 lisha elongata (Benn., 1830) lisha elongata	(Benn., 1830) Ilisha indica	(Swain., 1039) Hisha indica (Swain., 1839) Hisha indica (Swain., 1839)
642 162 (5)	648 161 (5)	640 162 (4)	(62 (3)	62 (2)	(1) 19	61 (4)	634 160 (4)	(1)	(1) 091	60 (3)	65 (5)	(9) 29	64 (3) 65 (1)	54 (4)	165 (3)
642	648 1	640	640 162 (3)	641 162 (2)	(1) 191 689	639 161 (4)	634 I	633 I	633 I	632 I	644 165 (5)	644 165 (6)	$643 \begin{cases} 164 \ (3) \\ 165 \ (1) \end{cases}$	644 164 (4)	643 165 (3) 645 164 (2)
Corica soborna	(Pellonulinae) Spratelloides malabaricus	(Alosinae) Clupea kanagurta	Clupea ilisha	Clupea toli	Clupea chapra	Clupea variegata	(Dorosomatinae) Chatoessus nasus	ina	Chatoessus modestus 633	Chatoessus chacunda 632 160 (3)	(Pristigasterinae) Pellona ditchela	Pellona hoevenii	Pellona elongata Pellona leschenaulti		Pellona motius Pellona brachysoma

	*		*	*		*	*	*				*	*				*	*			*		*	
								*				*	*	ZMB rours	(auratus)		*						*	
	*			*			*	*	*			*	*	*						*			*	
	٠	BMNH.1870.	0,14,30	*		*	(as russellii)	*	-1			*	*	RMINH 1867	5.30.13	(auvatus)	*	*			*		46	
*	*		*	*		*	*	*	*			*	*				*	*		*			*	
*	*	ZSI.2672	*			#	*	*	H			*	*				*	*		*			*	
Ilisha megaloptera	Ilisha megaloptera	Hisha sladeni	(Day, 1869) Opisthopterus tardoore (Cur. 1820)	Raconda russeliana	Gray, 1831	Stolephorus tra (Blkr., 1852)	Stolephorus indicus	(van riass., 1023) Stolephorus commersonu	(Lac., 1803)	(Forssk., 1775)	Thryssa setirostris (Frouss., 1782)	Thirssa mystax	Thryssa purava	(Ham. Buch., 1822)	(Val., 1848)		Thryssa hamiltonii	(Gray, 1835)	(Bloch, 1795)	Thyssa kammalensis	(Blkr., 1849) Setibinna tatv	(Val., 1848)	Setipinna phasa	Setipinna breviceps (Cantor, 1850)
165 (2)	165 (4)	164 (1)	163 (5)	163 (4)		630 158 (6)	158 (3)	158 (1)	(2) 824 949	120 (1)	ļ	157 (3)	157 (2)	(3) 83	14) 00:		(2) (4)	(2) 757 (5)	10 10	626 157 (1)	158 (5)		158 (2)	1
645	643	645	qtq	949		630	679	679	9636	240	979	625	628	637	1-0		625	6.76	(1)	626	628		627	628
Pellona megaloptera	Pellona filigera	Pellona sladeni	Opisthopterus tartoor 646 163 (5)	Raconda russelliana 646 163 (4)	ENGRAULIDAE	Engraulis in	Engraults indicus	Engraulis	Engrantic booleans	Tuestamis community	Engraulis setirostris	Engraulis mystax	Engraulis purava	Fuorante ducenment 6.1			Engraults hamiltonn 625 157 (4)	Fnovaulis	malabancus	Engraults	kammalensis Engraulis taty		Engraulis telara	Engraulis breviceps

				*	*		Leiden, 32 species
							Berlin, 18 species
							Vienna, 23 species
*					*		London, 41 species
*				*	*		Sydney, 40 species
*				*	*		Calcutta, 39 species
631 159 (2) Coilia ramcarati	(Ham. Buch., 1822) Coilia ramcarati	(Ham. Buch., 1822) Coilia ramcarati	(Ham. Buch., 1822) Coilia reynaldi	Val., 1848 Coilia reynaldi	Val., 1848 631 158 (8) Coilia dussumieri	Val., 1848	46 valid species amongst Calcutta, those recognized by Day 39 species
(2) (5)	1	1	1	632 159 (1)	58 (8)		
631 1	631	631	630	632 I	631 1		
Coilia ramcarati	Coilia cantoris	Coilia	quadragesımalis Coilia reynaldi	Coilia borneensis	Coilia dussumieri		35 cupeoud species listed by Day

Note: Dr. Gareth Nelson is describing a new species of Nematalosa, close to N.nasus. One of Day's specimens of N.nasus in the British Museum is this new species, ex Canara, BMNH. 1889.2.1. 1877.

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ADDENDUM

In 1889 the Zoological Institute in Leningrad received a large collection of Day Fishes, comprising 357 specimens (284 species). These were a gift from the British Museum (Natural History), presumably taken from the large collection presented to the Museum just before Day's death. Amongst these specimens are 32 clupeoids, including a paralectotype of *Spratelloides malabaricus* (see p. 64), making a total of 19 clupeoid species.

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CROMWELL ROAD

LONDON, SW7 5BD

PLATE 1

- a. Clupea sindensis, Fishes of India, pl. 163 (2), F. Day del., 119 mm tot. l. (= Sardinella sindensis).
- b. Spratelloides malabaricus, Fishes of India, pl. 161 (5), C. Achilles del. et lith., 69 mm tot. 1 (= Dayella malabarica).
- c. Clupea variegata, Fishes of India, pl. 161 (4), C. Achilles del. et lith., 197 mm tot. l. (= Gudusia variegata).

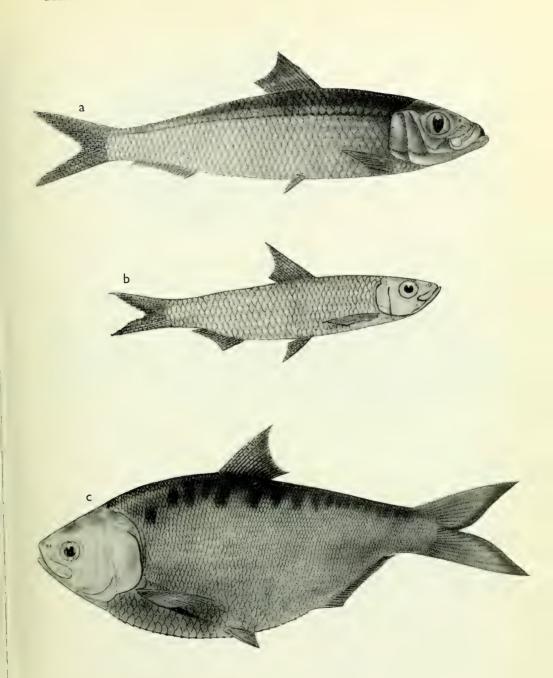
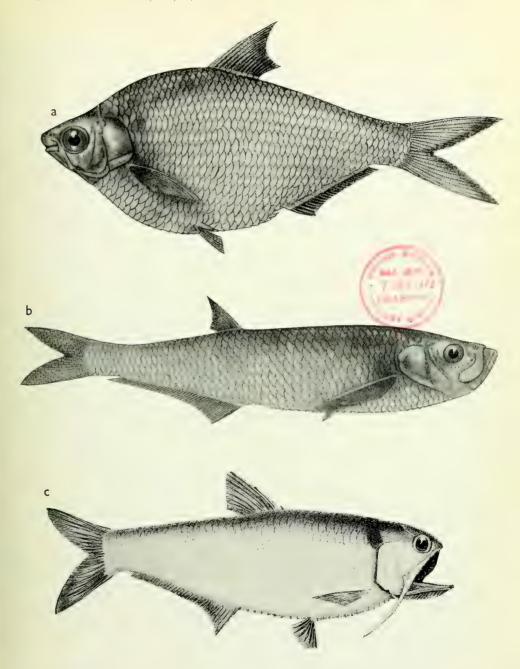


PLATE 2

- a Chatoessus modestus, Fishes of India, pl. 160 (1), C. Achilles del. et lith., 132 mm tot. l. (= Gonialosa modesta).
- b. Pellona sladeni, Fishes of India, pl. 164 (1), F. Day del., 177 mm tot. l. (= Ilisha sladeni).
- Engraulis auratus, Fishes of Malabar, pl. 19 (2), F. Day del. et sculp., 115 mm tot. l.
 (= Thryssa dussumieri).











A LIST OF SUPPLEMENTS TO THE ZOOLOGICAL SERIES OF THE BULLETIN OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

 KAY, E. ALISON. Marine Molluscs in the Cuming Collection British Museum (Natural History) described by William Harper Pease. Pp. 96; 14 Plates. 1965. (Out of Print.) £3.75.

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3. TAYLOR, J. D., KENNEDY, W. J. & HALL, A. The Shell Structure of Mineralogy at the Bivalvia. Introduction. Nuculacea-Trigonacea. Pp. 125; 29 Plates, 77 Text-figures. 1969. £4.50.

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1962-1964. (In press.)



FINE STRUCTURE OF BODO SALTANS AND BODO CAUDATUS (ZOOMASTIGOPHORA: PROTOZOA) AND THEIR AFFINITIES WITH THE TRYPANOSOMATIDAE

c

B. E. BROOKER

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LONDON: 1971



FINE STRUCTURE OF BODO SALTANS AND BODO CAUDATUS (ZOOMASTIGOPHORA: PROTOZOA) AND THEIR AFFINITIES WITH THE TRYPANOSOMATIDAE

BY

BRIAN EDWARD BROOKER

Nuffield Institute of Comparative Medicine, London

Pp. 87-102; 6 Plates, 1 Text-figure

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This paper is Vol. 22, No. 3 of the Zoological series. The abbreviated titles of periodicals cited follow those of the World List of Scientific Periodicals.

World List abbreviation Bull, Br. Mus. nat. Hist. (Zool.).

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TRUSTEES OF
THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

FINE STRUCTURE OF BODO SALTANS AND BODO CAUDATUS (ZOOMASTIGOPHORA: PROTOZOA) AND THEIR AFFINITIES WITH THE TRYPANOSOMATIDAE

By B. E. BROOKER

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SYNOPSIS

Characters specific to each of two species of *Bodo* are described for the first time. *Bodo* saltans possesses cytoplasmic bacteria, hair-like appendages (mastigonemes) on the anterior flagellum and circumbuccal lappets surrounding the opening of the alimentary system. In *B. caudatus*, an electron dense band separates the kinetoplast from the basal bodies of the flagella. In addition, clear differences exist between the microtubular systems associated with the buccal cavity and cytopharynx. It is suggested that the mastigonemes and circumbuccal lappets of *B. saltans* are responsible for the capture of food organisms.

In both species the alimentary system is a membrane-lined tube surrounded by a number of microtubules. The single mitochondrion is dilated in the vicinity of the basal bodies and contains a prominent kinetoplast. Since both these organelle systems closely resemble those found in members of the related Trypanosomatidae, the possible origin of this family from

Bodo or a Bodo-like flagellate is discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Bodo is a cosmopolitan flagellate found in fresh and brackish waters and in some soils. This and other members of the Bodonidae are of interest chiefly because of their close relationship to the economically and medically important trypanosomes.

This relationship is based on the presence of a mass of DNA—the kinetoplast—situated in a dilatation of the single mitochondrion. In trypanosomes, this organelle has been regarded as a genetic system containing the information required for the synthesis of mitochondrial enzymes (Steinert, 1960) but in Bodo its function has not been examined. Of the many species of Bodo which have been described, Bodo saltans Ehrenberg, 1831 and Bodo caudatus Stein, 1878 are probably the two most commonly found. They occur in quite different habitats for whereas B. caudatus tends to be coprozoic, B. saltans is usually found in freshwater. Separation of the two species depends on such characters as body shape and size, length of the flagella and the position of the nucleus relative to that of the kinetoplast. However, the present fine structural study describes a number of clearly defined qualitative differences between B. saltans and B. caudatus which would not have been visible to the earlier light microscopists.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bodo saltans was isolated from a sample of fresh water taken from a pond near Slapton Ley, Devon. From this isolate, clone cultures were established on o·1% w/v 'Oxoid' dehydrated liver intusion (pH 4·6) and maintained at 25°C.

Bodo caudatus was isolated from an infusion of pig faeces which was obtained from Winches Farm, near St. Albans, Hertfordshire. Clone cultures from this isolate were maintained at 25°C on 0.2% w/v 'Oxoid' beef extract (pH 5.8). In both cases, cultures were agnotobiotic. For light and electron microscopy, cultures were harvested after 3 days growth.

Light microscopy.—Phase contrast observations were made using a Leitz Ortholux microscope fitted with a Heine condenser. Flagellates were examined either alive or after fixation with 1% osmium tetroxide. Smears fixed in Schaudinn's fluid were

stained with iron haematoxylin and examined by bright field microscopy.

Electron microscopy.—Flagellates were collected by centrifugation at 1,000 r.p.m. for 10 minutes and the resulting pellet fixed for 5 minutes at room temperature in 1% osmium tetroxide buffered to pH 7·4 either with 0·1 M Sorensen's phosphate buffer or 0·1 M veronal acetate (Michaelis). Before dehydration, the pellet was treated with 1% uranyl acetate in 25% ethanol for 30 minutes. After dehydration in ethanol-water mixtures and absolute ethanol, the pellet was treated with propylene oxide or toluene and embedded in Araldite. Sections were cut using a Porter-Blum MT2 ultramicrotome and stained in lead citrate prior to examination in an EM 6B electron microscope.

Some flagellates were fixed as before, washed in distilled water and dried onto grids. They were then placed in a coating unit and shadowed with gold/palladium at an angle of 30° . Negatively stained preparations were made using sodium phosphotungstate at pH 7° 0.

RESULTS

Light microscopy.—Bodo saltans.—The body of this flagellate is oval in shape (5–8 μ m long and 2–5 μ m wide) and has two flagella of unequal length which arise from the bottom of a depression (the reservoir or flagellar pocket) near the anterior

end of the cell (Fig. 1). During locomotion in which the body rotates on its own axis, the shorter anterior flagellum is extremely active while the posterior flagellum remains stationary or undergoes slight movement. When stationary, the flagellate often attaches itself to some object by the tip of its trailing flagellum and may then exhibit rapid oscillations. This behaviour is characteristic of *B. saltans*. The kinetoplast lies near to the basal bodies of the flagella and the nucleus, which con-

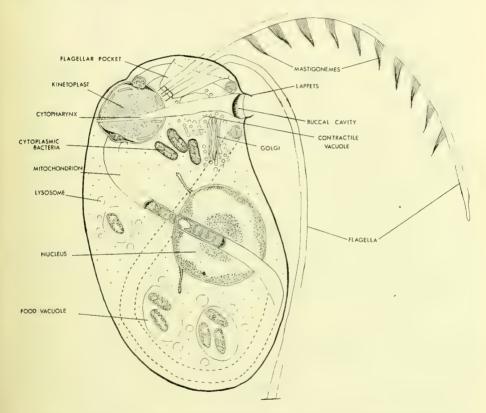


Fig. 1. Diagram of Bodo saltans showing the arrangement of the main organelles.

tains a conspicuous central karyosome, is central or mid-ventral in position. The single mitochondrion is markedly siderophilic and appears as a thin filament which originates from one side of the kinetoplast, describes a figure of eight or a loop within the cell and terminates at the opposite side of the kinetoplast. A single, round contractile vacuole appears at intervals at the anterior end of the living cell. It is situated just below and to one side of the flagellar pocket into which it periodically discharges its contents. The posterior half of the flagellate is occupied by a variable number of food vacuoles.

The opening of the alimentary system, the buccal cavity, is marked by a small vacuole on the ventral surface near the anterior end of the flagellate. Ingestion of bacteria is a very rapid process and can be observed satisfactorily only during the short periods of quiescence when it is attached to the substratum by its posterior flagellum. During ingestion, a bacterium is drawn into the buccal cavity and rapidly passes ventro-dorsally along a path which corresponds exactly with that of the cytopharynx (see later). A large vacuole then appears at a point which probably corresponds to the end of the cytopharynx and the bacterium passes into it. This food vacuole then slowly moves to the posterior end of the cell.

Bodo caudatus. When harvested in the logarithmic phase of growth, B. caudatus is long and narrow with a convex dorsal and concave ventral surface (8-14 µm long and 4-6 µm wide). The two flagella are of unequal length and arise from the bottom of the flagellar pocket near the anterior end of the cell. The anterior flagellum is the shorter but most active during locomotion. Situated in the anterior half of the cell, the nucleus frequently lies very close to the kinetoplast. As in B. saltans, the single mitochondrion is continuous at both its ends with the kinetoplast and describes a loop-like circuit of the cell. Almost the entire posterior half of the flagellate is occupied by food vacuoles and an active contractile vacuole lies close to the flagellar pocket. Although anteriorly a small buccal cavity is clearly visible, the ingestion of bacteria is very difficult to observe because of the relentless swimming habit of this flagellate.

ELECTRON MICROSCOPY.—Flagellar Pocket. In both species of Bodo, the flagellar pocket is a lateral depression at the anterior end of the body. Because the two flagella emerge from the cell at the bottom of this structure (Fig. 1, Pl. 1, Fig. A), Pitelka (1961) referred to it as the circumflagellar depression. The flagellar pocket is lined with a unit membrane continuous with that covering the rest of the cell and below this, there lie a number of pellicular microtubules. Further details of these are given below.

Basal bodies and flagella. The two basal bodies are embedded in the cytoplasm at the base of the flagellar pocket and are therefore antero-lateral in position. They are structurally differentiated into 2 regions, an intracytoplasmic proximal portion and an extracytoplasmic transition zone which connects the intracytoplasmic portion to the flagellar shaft and is bounded by the flagellar membrane (Pl. I, Fig. A). The proximal end of the basal bodies lies very close to the surface of the kinetoplast capsule (Pl. I, Fig. A). The gap between these two structures is somewhat variable in width but is generally in the order of 100 nm and direct contact has never been observed. Under some conditions of fixation, a reticulum of fine filaments (8 nm wide) fills each basal body.

The junction of the basal body transition zone with the flagellum is marked by two transverse basal plates which are thickened peripherally (Pl. 1, Fig. B). The two central tubules of the axoneme originate just above the distal basal plate and the paraxial rod—a structure which runs parallel to the axoneme for about three quarters of its length—arises from a lateral extension of the proximal basal plate. The basal plate extensions of each flagellum face one another and the overlying flagellar

membranes are joined by a wide but very thin extracellular striated band (Pl. 1, Figs B and C). Of the three closely spaced striations, only the central one (5 nm wide) is prominent. Those lying on either side of it are more diffuse and can be satisfactorily resolved only in longitudinal sections of the band.

The transition zone of the basal bodies consists of 9 peripheral doublets of tubules each of which is joined to the adjacent flagellar membrane by a narrow connective. The intracytoplasmic portion is composed of 9 tubule triplets and is open proximally. The proximal ends of the basal bodies are connected by three striated rootlets (Pl. 1, Fig. D). Two of these arise from a single triplet on the basal body of the posterior flagellum and diverge slightly as they approach and insert onto the other basal body. A third rootlet running approximately parallel to the other two also connects the basal bodies. All three rootlets have a major period of 50 nm. The prominent bands delimiting the major repeating unit are 25 nm wide and between these lies a narrower 5 nm wide band. There is in addition, a 'Y' shaped rootlet which arises from the basal body of the anterior flagellum and passes antero-laterally to insert onto a group of 2–3 short microtubules running parallel to the cytopharynx (Pl. 1, Fig. D).

Both flagella contain the familiar '9+2' arrangement of tubules and a paraxial rod (Pl. 1, Fig. E). After running parallel to the axoneme for about three-quarters of its length, the paraxial rod tapers before terminating. Details of its structure are difficult to resolve but it appears to have a lattice-like architecture. The anterior flagellum of Bodo saltans, unlike that of B. caudatus, bears mastigonemes. These hair-like appendages are arranged in bundles along one side of the flagellum and have been reported elsewhere (Brooker, 1965). Metal-shadowed preparations of B. saltans show that the posterior flagellum bears a number of parallel transverse striations whose separation is 14 nm (Pl. 1, Fig. F). They are found only after the flagellum has emerged from the flagellar pocket and extend distally for a distance of 3 µm. In B. caudatus similar striations first appear at a level corresponding to the junction of the basal body with the flagellum but because they extend distally only for a distance of about I um, they are not visible in shadowed material. In sectioned material, the striations are seen as periodic thickenings (14 nm wide) of both leaflets of the flagellar membrane (Pl. 1, Fig. E, Pl. 2, Fig. A). Such thickenings occupy about 25% of the circumference of the flagellar membrane (Pl. 1, Fig. E). On passing distally, this percentage gradually decreases so that in shadowed preparations of B. saltans, the array of striations appears to taper to an end (Pl. I, Fig. F).

Alimentary system. The ingestion of food particles by Bodo takes place by way of permanent oral structures—the buccal cavity and cytopharynx—which lie to the right of the flagellar pocket (Pl. 2, Fig. B). The position at which the buccal cavity opens on to the surface of the cell differs in the two species. In B. saltans, it opens antero-ventrally (Pl. 2, Fig. C) but in B. caudatus it is found at the extreme anterior end of the flagellate (Pl. 2, Fig. D). Very rare sections in which a bacterium is found in the buccal cavity (Pl. 1, Fig. A) suggest that this organelle is capable of considerable distension. Frequently, the membrane lining the buccal cavity has a pronounced cell coat (Pl. 2, Fig. C) which takes the form of bundles of fine filaments projecting perpendicularly from the membrane. A number of structures, referred

to here as circumbuccal lappets, surround the opening of the buccal cavity of B. saltans (Pl. 2, Fig. B). They are flat, triangular projections (Pl. 3, Fig. A) which are joined at their bases to form a ring. Each lappet is composed of many fine filaments and arises from an intracellular band at the margin of the buccal cavity. These structures appear to be totally absent from B. caudatus.

From the left side of the buccal cavity arises an elongate tube lined by a unit membrane and surrounded by a number of microtubules (Pl. 2, Fig. B). In accordance with the terminology used for the oral apparatus of ciliates, this organelle will be referred to as the cytopharynx. In Bodo saltans the cytopharynx approaches the kinetoplast, passes underneath and to one side of it and on reaching the dorsal surface of the body, curves to one side (Pl. 3, Fig. C). In B. caudatus, it passes posteriorly just below the cell membrane (Pl. 2, Fig. D). Although the cytopharynx terminates just posterior to the kinetoplast, the microtubules associated with it frequently reach the posterior margin of the nucleus before terminating. In both species, the diameter of the lumen decreases distal to the buccal cavity. Numerous vesicles of variable diameter are always found underneath and to the right side of the cytopharynx in B. saltans (Pl. 2, Fig. B, Pl. 3, Fig. C). Although similar vesicles are occasionally found in B. caudatus, they are generally smaller and less numerous. Their origin is not clear, but many longitudinal sections of the cytopharvnx suggest that they arise as invaginations of the cytopharvngeal membrane.

Both light and electron microscope observations suggest that ingestion of food particles takes place at the blind end of the cytopharynx. Since the diameter of the cytopharynx is at all points along its length smaller than that of food organisms found in the food vacuoles, ingestion must be accompanied by considerable distension of the cytopharynx. Ingestion results in the formation of a number of food vacuoles which migrate to the posterior half of the cell. The food vacuoles are bound by a single unit membrane and may contain one or more food organisms (Pl. 5, Fig. D). When digestion is complete, only a diffuse mass of undigestible material remains in the vacuole. Since such vacuoles do not accumulate in the cytoplasm, it seems likely that undigestible material is voided by the coalescence of the cell membrane with that of the food vacuole. However, this has never been observed.

Microtubular systems. Microtubules of external diameter 20-25 nm are associated with several organelles in the anterior half of the flagellate. Many, but not all, of the tubules which are associated with the flagellar pocket, cytopharynx and body, appear to arise from the proximal ends of the two basal bodies.

Bodo saltans. The microtubules which are to surround the cytopharynx pass along the flagellar pocket in two groups. At the opening of the flagellar pocket, three members of each group approach each other (Pl. 3, Fig. B) and continue as microtubule doublets. They curve over the narrow bridge of cytoplasm separating the flagellar pocket from the alimentary system and enter the walls of the buccal cavity where they adopt a 'U' shaped configuration. From the left side of this cavity, the microtubules follow the course of the cytopharynx and become arranged around it in two groups. Associated with the floor and left side of the cytopharynx is a group of 5 microtubules and with the roof a group of 3 (Pl. 3, Fig. D). The right

side of the organelle is free of tubules. The middle 3 tubules of the group of 5 are double and joined on their left side to the cytopharyngeal membrane by a short connective. Although 8 microtubules normally run parallel to the cytopharynx. 9 or 10 are sometimes found (Pl. 3, Fig. E). The microtubules of each group are connected by a number of fine filaments which occur at intervals (13 nm) along their length (Pl. 4, Fig. A). Beyond the blind end of the cytopharynx, the connectives of the microtubule doublets disappear but the arrangement of the two groups of tubules remains constant until they terminate near the dorsal surface of the flagellate.

Beneath the cell membrane at the anterior end of the cell lie a number of pellicular microtubules. Although some of these arise from the basal bodies of the flagella. many appear to have their origin near the opening of the flagellar pocket. From here, the microtubules spiral round the anterior end of the cell and on approaching the right side of the buccal cavity dip below the cell surface (Pl. 4, Fig. B). They then describe a semi-circular path as a curved band of 15-20 tubules (Pl. 4, Fig. C). Passing below the buccal cavity (Pl. 3, Fig. C) they move anteriorly and terminate in the cytoplasm between the cytopharynx and the flagellar pocket.

Bodo caudatus. The arrangement of microtubules associated with the buccal cavity resembles that described for B. saltans. The tubules which are to surround the alimentary system pass along the wall of the flagellar pocket and enter the buccal cavity. Here, transverse sections show that the tubules are arranged in a line along the left wall (Pl. 4, Fig. D, Pl. 5, Fig. A). As the tubules follow the cytopharynx from the left side of the buccal cavity, they distribute themselves around the cytopharyngeal membrane (Pl. 5, Fig. B) in 2 overlapping groups. One group associated with the roof of the cytopharynx usually contains 4 microtubules; the other group, which lies next to the floor and left side of the organelle, may contain 4, 5 or 6 tubules three of which are double and joined as in B. saltans to the cytopharyngeal membrane by a short connective. Such connectives disappear a short distance from the buccal cavity.

Another set of microtubules emerges from the flagellar pocket, spirals round the anterior end of the cell and comes to occupy the right hand wall of the buccal cavity just below the lining membrane (Pl. 4, Fig. D). The 15-20 microtubules in this set are joined by intertubular connectives and for most of their length travel posteriorly parallel to the buccal cavity and cytopharynx. A limb of the single mitochondrion which passes beneath the buccal cavity modifies the path taken by some of the tubules. As they travel posteriorly, the tubules gradually move away from the cytopharynx (Pl. 5, Figs A, B) and towards the cell membrane until, at a level beyond the blind end of the cytopharynx, they are seen as a row of pellicular microtubules. These tubules travel some distance posteriorly before terminating. In addition to this major set, an equally conspicuous row of very short parallel tubules is found on either side of the buccal cavity (Pl. 4, Fig. D).

Kinetoplast-mitochondrion.-Lying just below the cell membrane, the single mitochondrion describes a loop-like circuit of the cell (Fig. 1). In Bodo saltans, this organelle travels above and parallel to the cytopharynx, describes a semi-circular path around the right side of the buccal cavity (Pl. 5, Fig. D) and passes to the extreme posterior end of the cell before returning anteriorly to the basal body region.

The whole circuit of the mitochondrion frequently takes the form of a figure of eight. The form of the mitochondrion in B. caudatus is similar to that of B. saltans except that in the posterior region of the former it is frequently seen as a branching structure.

The cristae are predominantly plate-like and arise from the inner mitochondrial membrane. The granular matrix of the mitochondrion is dense but sometimes contains irregularly shaped bodies of much greater electron density (Pl. 5, Fig. C).

In the region of the basal bodies, a prominent spherical dilatation of the mitochondrial tube houses the kinetoplast. This will be referred to as the kinetoplast capsule. The kinetoplast is composed of a complex reticulum of fine filaments (2.5-3.0 nm thick) and contains a large number of irregularly distributed electron dense nodes (Pl. 6, Fig. A). It is separated from the wall of the mitochondrion by a number of cristae embedded in a thick layer of mitochondrial matrix (Pl. 6, Fig. A). The basal bodies of the flagella lie very close to the surface of the mitochondrial kinetoplast capsule but are never seen in contact with it. In Bodo caudatus, the basal bodies are separated from the capsule by a flat electron dense pad (Pl. 1, Fig. A).

Nucleus.—The relative position of the nucleus within the cell is one of the features by which the two species of Bodo may be separated. In B. saltans it is found midventrally some distance from the kinetoplast capsule whilst in B. caudatus, it is always found very close to this part of the mitochondrion. The nucleus is bound by a nuclear envelope composed of two membranes of which the outer is continuous with the granular endoplasmic reticulum. A prominent and finely granular nucleolus of variable shape occupies the centre of the nucleus (Pl. 5, Fig. D). In B. saltans a layer of condensed chromatin is often seen attached to the inner membrane of the nuclear envelope but in B, caudatus, this component of the nucleus appears to be absent or at least is not visualized by the techniques used in this study.

Endocytoplasmic bacteria.—Structures have been observed in the cytoplasm of Bodo saltans which, on morphological grounds, have been tentatively identified as bacilliform bacteria (approximately 1 µm long and 0.3 µm wide). They are found in all individuals of the flagellate population and are always situated in the anterior half of the cell (Pl. 2, Fig. C, Pl. 4, Fig. C). Although the largest number of bacteria seen in one cell profile is four, the total population is probably much larger. They can be easily distinguished from food organisms since the latter are separated from the cytoplasm of the flagellate by the membrane of the food vacuole and are usually found at the posterior end of the cell (Pl. 5, Fig. D).

Each bacterial cell is bounded by a cell membrane 8 nm thick which bears on its outer surface a thin layer of filamentous material in direct contact with the host cytoplasm. Extensions of a layer of dense material lying beneath the cell membrane project into the electron lucent central portion of the bacterium which is traversed by fine fibrils. Deep, mid-length constrictions of the bacteria suggestive of division are commonly encountered and appear independently of the host cell division cycle (Pl. 6, Fig. C).

Cytoplasmic membrane systems.—The contractile vacuole is situated on the left side of the flagellate just below and to one side of the flagellar pocket (Pl. 4, Fig. D). Surrounding the vacuole is a number of vesicles and tubules which serial sections show to be continuous with the lumen of the vacuole (Pl. 6, Fig. B). After systole, the membrane lining the vacuole appears rounded in section. At discharge, the membranes between the flagellar pocket and contractile vacuole coalesce and the contents of the vacuole are discharged into the flagellar pocket. The thin layer of cytoplasm between the membranes of the flagellar pocket and contractile vacuole is traversed by a number of concentrically arranged circular septa. Coated vesicles are commonly encountered in the vicinity of the vacuole and often they are seen with their membrane confluent with that of the vacuole.

The Golgi apparatus is situated directly below the cytopharynx (Pl. 4, Fig. C, Pl. 5, Fig. D) and to the right side of the contractile vacuole and is composed of a stack of 6–10 compressed saccules. Although vesicles of both the smooth and coated type are actively proliferated from the margins of all the Golgi saccules, there is frequently a notable concentration in the region of the distal saccule.

Cisternae of granular endoplasmic reticulum arise from the outer membrane of the nuclear envelope and ramify throughout the cell. One limb of this reticulum is permanently associated with the posterior margin of the cytopharynx and runs parallel to it for most of its length (Pl. 3, Fig. D).

DISCUSSION

Since, at the level of the light microscope, *Bodo saltans* and *B. caudatus* appear to possess the same major organelle systems, separation of the two species is based on differences in the spatial arrangement of these organelles and on differences in the size and shape of the body. Whilst confirming the validity of such criteria, the present study has shown that separation is also possible using characters which are beyond the resolution of the light microscope. Thus in *B. saltans*, circumbuccal lappets, endocytoplasmic bacteria and mastigonemes on the anterior flagellum are consistently present but are never found in *B. caudatus*. Similarly, the dense layer of material which separates the basal bodies of the flagella from the kinetoplast capsule is present only in *B. caudatus*. Although Pitelka (1961) was only able to make a tentative identification of the flagellate she studied, it is clear that it was *B. saltans* for her pictures show the cytoplasmic bacteria and circumbuccal lappets of this species.

The alimentary system and the microtubules associated with it have been briefly reported by Pitelka (1961). She pointed out that the non-contractile rostral vacuole described by Hollande (1942) corresponded to the cup-like depression at the opening of the alimentary system, a structure which has been referred to as the buccal cavity in the present study. Sections of the alimentary system containing partially ingested bacteria suggest that the buccal cavity and cytopharynx are capable of considerable distension. This conclusion is supported by the observations made by Sinton (1912) on a flagellate which he referred to as *Prowazekia urinaria* but which, from his description, was probably *Bodo caudatus*. He observed that the flagellate was able to ingest not only large bacteria but also red blood cells and that on these occasions the buccal cavity was capable of being greatly distended. As Sinton describes it, the path taken by the bacteria through the cell during ingestion

corresponds exactly to the course of the cytopharynx described in the present study. A similar conclusion has been drawn from the light microscope observations of feeding in *B. saltans*. These results are contrary to Pitelka's assertion that bacteria do not pass along the cytopharynx. Although the function of the microtubules associated with the alimentary system is unknown, it is possible that they confer a degree of elasticity on the organelle which enables it to return to its normal shape and size once ingestion is complete. Schuster (1968) suggested a similar function for the cytopharyngeal tubules of the cryptomonad flagellate *Cyathomonas truncata* and extended this proposal to the case of *Bodo*.

The capture of prev by Bodo caudatus has been described by Sinton (1912). According to this author, the distal portion of the anterior flagellum is capable of grasping bacteria and propelling them to the opening of the buccal cavity by coiling movements. Infolding movements of the edges of the buccal cavity then initiate ingestion. This mechanism is possible in B. caudatus only because the buccal cavity opens anteriorly and is therefore ideally situated to receive bacteria carried to it by the anterior flagellum. Because the buccal cavity of B. saltans opens anteroventrally, the mechanism described above for B, caudatus does not appear adequate to explain the capture of food organisms. Instead, a mechanism involving the mastigonemes of the anterior flagellum is proposed. Although the mastigonemes do not appear to play a major role in locomotion (Holwill, 1966), it is possible that during the oar-like movements of the anterior flagellum (Holwill, 1966) they exert a component force in the direction of the buccal cavity which sweeps food organisms towards it. Such a mechanism may bring bacteria to the vicity of the buccal cavity but the initiation of ingestion probably depends on movements of the margins of the buccal cavity as described by Sinton (1912) for B. caudatus. In this process, participation by the circumbuccal lappets may be important. It is visualized therefore that the mastigonemes and the circumbuccal lappets are functionally integrated to form a system responsible for the capture and ingestion of food organisms. Schuster (1968) has described a filamentous fringe surrounding the opening of the cytopharynx of Cyathomonas which, like the circumbuccal lappets of B. saltans, has its origin beneath the cell membrane and is believed to assist in feeding.

In her study of Bodo saltans, Pitelka (1961) suggested that the cytopharynx was a modified intracytoplasmic flagellum. This suggestion was based on the observation that the cytopharynx is surrounded by 9 microtubules and arises close to the surface of the kinetoplast near the basal bodies of the flagella. However, it has been shown here that the cytopharynx passes beyond the kinetoplast capsule and although occasionally surrounded by 9 or 10 tubules, 8 is the usual number. In view of these findings, the homology attempted by Pitelka must be considered doubtful.

Vesicles of various sizes are associated with the cytopharynx of Bodo (Pitelka, 1961), Ichthyobodo (Costia) necator (Joyon and Lom 1966, 1969) and Cyathomonas truncata (Mignot, 1965; Schuster, 1968). In the case of Cyathomonas, Mignot (1965) believed that these vesicles arise from the Golgi apparatus and Schuster (1968) has suggested that they contain digestive enzymes which are ultimately emptied into the food vacuoles. In Bodo however, profiles showing an undulatory cytopharyngeal

membrane strongly suggest that the vesicles arise by pinocytosis although in the absence of tracer experiments this can only be conjecture.

Although in most respects the flagella of Bodo closely resemble those described from other kinetoplastid flagellates (Pyne, 1960; Anderson and Ellis, 1965; Vickerman, 1969), they do possess two features, namely the striations of the posterior flagellum and the extracellular interflagellar connective, which are not shared by other members of this group. The significance of these structures is not known. but an extracellular connection between the 2 flagella may go some way to explaining synchrony of these organelles during movement. The paraxial rod of both flagella arises from the proximal basal plate but in the closely related trypanosomatids it

only becomes recognizable a short way along the flagellum.

The mitochondrion was probably first visualized by Whitmore (1911) who described a fibril from Bodo asiaticus (= B. caudatus) which ran from the kinetoplast to the posterior end of the cell. Alexeieff (1912) observed this 'fibrille sidérophile' in B. caudatus and B. edax but reported that it could only be seen in flagellates from young cultures. A detailed study of this structure was made by Hollande (1936, 1942). He noted that it was a constant feature of all species of Bodo but that there was a species difference in the extent to which it was developed. Because the 'côte' or 'cordon siderophile', as Hollande called it, was best developed in B. saltans, he paid more attention to this species and described in some detail the path taken by it through the cell. As noted by Pitelka (1961), it seems probable that Hollande was describing the mitochondrion since electron microscopy shows that this is the only organelle which follows an identical path through the cell.

The enclosure of the DNA-containing kinetoplast in a dilatation of the mitochondrial tube is a feature uniting Bodo with members of the Trypanosomatidae. However, they differ in the organization of the kinetoplast for whereas in the Trypanosomatidae the kinetoplast is disk shaped with its component fibrils arranged antero-posteriorly, in Bodo it is spherical with its fibrils forming a reticulum. Although in all kinetoplastid flagellates the basal bodies of the flagella lie very close to the surface of the kinetoplast capsule, no physical connection between the two has been found. Such a connection has been sought because in many trypanosomatids the two structures are linked in morphogenesis and appear connected after cell rupture (Simpson, 1968). The present study suggests that in the case of Bodo caudatus no direct connection is possible because the two structures are separated by a thick electron dense pad. The observations made by Simpson (1968) on Leishmania tarentolae led him to suggest that the kinetoplast capsule is attached to the basal body by an EDTA-sensitive cytoplasmic cement. There seems no reason why this explanation cannot be extended to other kinetoplastid flagellates.

Electron dense bodies similar to those found in the matrix of the mitochondrion have also been described from Crithidia fasciculata (Brooker, 1971) and in Tetrahymena pyriformis Levy and Elliott (1968) found that they become more numerous when the ciliates are starved. Although their significance is unknown, it is interesting that these bodies resemble the altered kinetoplast DNA of trypanosomatid flagellates which have been exposed to acriflavine (Kusel, Moore and Weber, 1967; Hill and Anderson, 1969). Although dyskinetoplastic Bodo caudatus was obtained by Robertson (1929) using acriflavine, the electron miscroscopy of the kinetoplast after this treatment has not been studied.

The endocytoplasmic bacteria of *Bodo saltans* appear to be a constant feature of this species. Profiles showing constrictions across the equator of some bacteria support the assumption that they multiply to keep pace with division of the flagellate. Gram stained preparations of *B. saltans* provide little useful information since it is difficult to distinguish endocytoplasmic bacteria from food organisms. However, since the walls of Gram negative bacteria are very thin (Kellenberger and Ryter, 1958) compared with those of Gram positive bacteria (Glauert, 1962) the cytoplasmic bacteria of *Bodo* are judged to be Gram negative.

Bodies thought to be bacteria constantly occur in or on many species of protozoa as shown by the review of Kirby (1941). In most cases their identity and function is unknown. Since, in the case of *Bodo saltans*, there is no evidence to suggest that the flagellate benefits or is harmed by the association it is impossible at this stage to decide whether the bacteria are parasitic or symbiotic. However, in another kinetoplastid flagellate, namely *Crithidia oncopelti*, cytoplasmic bacteria or 'polar bodies' have been described by Newton and Horne (1957) which appear to provide the flagellate with lysine (Gill and Vogel, 1962).

Although there now appears to be general acceptance of the theory which holds that trypanosomes originated from the intestinal flagellates of insects (Hoare, 1948; Baker, 1963), the origins of the family still seem unclear. The presence in all trypanosomatid flagellates of a barren basal body in addition to that which produces the single motile flagellum (Rudzinska and Vickerman, 1969) may indicate origin from a biflagellate ancestor. Since at some stage this is likely to have been a free living flagellate, possible descent from Bodo or a Bodo-like organism is worth a brief consideration. Although the kinetoplast-mitochondrion is an obvious character uniting both groups of flagellates, it appears that an organelle comparable to the cytopharynx of Bodo has also been retained in a more or less modified form by many trypanosomatids (Brooker, 1971). In trypanosomatids, it is a deep (cytopharynx) or shallow (cytostome) invagination of the cell membrane associated, as in Bodo, with a number of microtubules. In both cases this organelle is endocytotic but whereas in Bodo it is primarily concerned with the ingestion of bacteria, in those trypanosomatids which have been examined it appears to be pinocytotic (Steinert and Novikoff, 1960; Preston, 1969; Brooker, 1971). Qualitative and quantitative differences in the nature of food ingested by Bodo and trypanosomatids may go some way to explain observed differences both in cell shape and the spatial arrangement of some organelles. Thus, the cytopharynx of Bodo, unlike that of trypanosomatids, is situated some distance from the flagellar pocket in order to facilitate prey capture and virtually the entire posterior half of the cell is devoted to the accommodation of food vacuoles. It is proposed therefore that the adoption of a parasitic mode of life by a Bodo-like flagellate and the subsequent abandonment of bacterophagic nutrition could have produced changes in body form which, together with other physiological adaptations led to the emergence of an ancestral trypanosomatid. Although such changes would have resulted in the retention of the cytopharynx, it

is assumed that the loss of one flagellum and development of the relatively sparse microtubular system occurred at some later stage.

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KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE PLATES

ax	axoneme	G	Golgi apparatus
b	bacterium	ger	granular endoplasmic reticulum
bb	basal body	ifc	interflagellar connective
bc	buccal cavity	k	kinetoplast
cb	cytoplasmic bacterium	m	mitochondrion
cbl	circumbuccal lappets	mast	mastigonemes
cv	contractile vacuole	mt	microtubule
cyt	cytopharynx	n	nucleus
f	flagellum	pr	paraxial rod
fp	flagellar pocket	rt	rootlet
fv	food vacuole	ves	vesicle

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Fig. A. Longitudinal section through the anterior end of B, caudatus. The buccal cavity is seen in transverse section. A bacterium in an early stage of ingestion occupies the greatly distended buccal cavity. Note the dense pad (arrowheads) lying between the basal body of the flagellum and the kinetoplast capsule. \times 29,500.

Fig. B. Longitudinal section through the basal plate region of two flagella showing the

striated interflagellar connective. × 96,000.

Fig. C. Transverse section of two flagella at the level of the basal plates which are joined

by the interflagellar connective. × 54,000.

Fig. D. Transverse section of the basal bodies of *B. saltans*. They are connected by striated rootlets. The rootlet passing from the basal body of the anterior flagellum to the vicinity of the cytopharynx can just be seen (arrow). This cell is in the early stages of division and the daughter basal bodies are already forming. A rootlet connects the basal body of the anterior flagellum with its daughter. × 56,500.

Fig. E. Transverse section of the posterior flagellum of *B. caudatus* showing the axoneme and the paraxial rod. On one side, a flagellar striation is seen as a thickening of the flagellar

membrane associated with sub-membrane material. × 56,500.

Fig. F. Posterior flagellum of B. saltans showing the parallel striations. Metal shadowed. < 44,500.

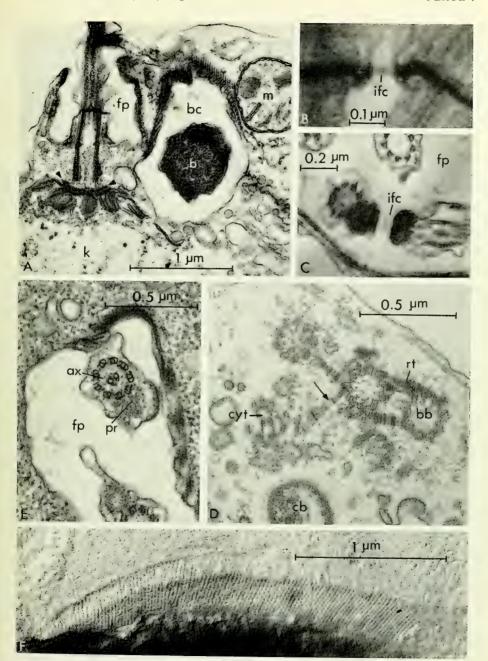


Fig. A. Longitudinal section through the posterior flagellum of B, caudatus showing the striations of the flagellar membrane. \times 56,500.

Fig. B. Transverse section through B, saltans showing the relationship of cytopharynx to the flagellar pocket. Small portions of the circumbuccal lappets are visible. One of the basal body rootlets appears clearly. Note the abundant vesicles lying on one side of the cytopharynx.

29,500.

Fig. C. Longitudinal section of the buccal cavity and part of the cytopharynx of B. saltans. Note the pronounced cell coat (arrowheads) of the buccal cavity membrane, the cytoplasmic bacteria and position of the lappets. The anterior end of the flagellate is at the top of the micrograph. \times 30,000.

Fig. D. Longitudinal section of *B. caudatus* showing the anteriorly directed buccal cavity. The kinetoplast and nucleus lie very close to each other in this species. The anterior end of the

flagellate is to the right of the micrograph. × 22,000.

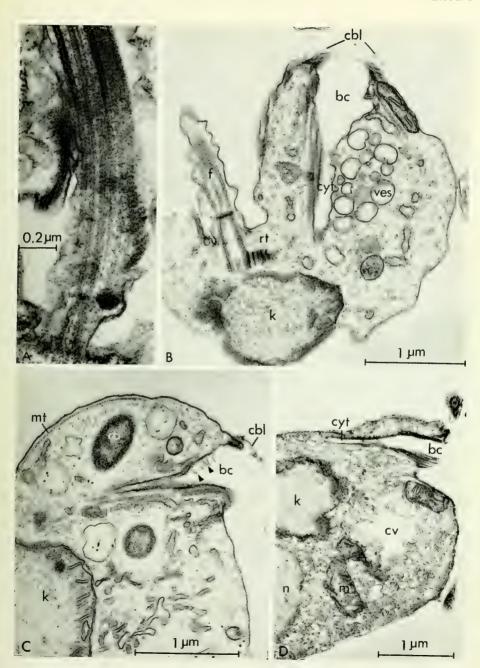


Fig. A. Negatively stained B, saltans showing the position of the circumbuccal lappets relative to the mastigonemes of the anterior flagellum. The position of the flagellum here corresponds to the bottom of the effective stroke. \times 28,500.

Fig. B. Section through the flagellar pocket of B. saltans demonstrating the pairing of

microtubules shortly before they enter the buccal cavity. × 37,500.

Fig. C. Longitudinal section of B, saltans showing the undulatory path of the cytopharynx. The Golgi apparatus has directly beneath this organelle. Note the numerous vesicles associated with the cytopharynx and the undulation of the cytopharyngeal membrane. A band of microtubules circumscribes the floor of the buccal cavity. \times 45,000.

Fig. D. Transverse section of the cytopharynx of B. saltans showing eight microtubules of

which three are paired. Note the vesicles lying beside it. × 66,000.

Fig. E. Transverse section of the cytopharynx of B, saltans showing that it is occasionally surrounded by nine microtubules. \times 40,000.

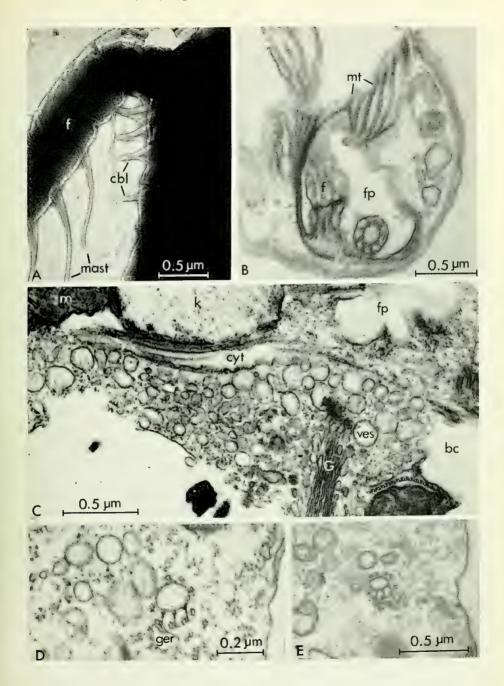


Fig. A. Tangential section of the cytopharynx in B. saltans. Note the connectives joining

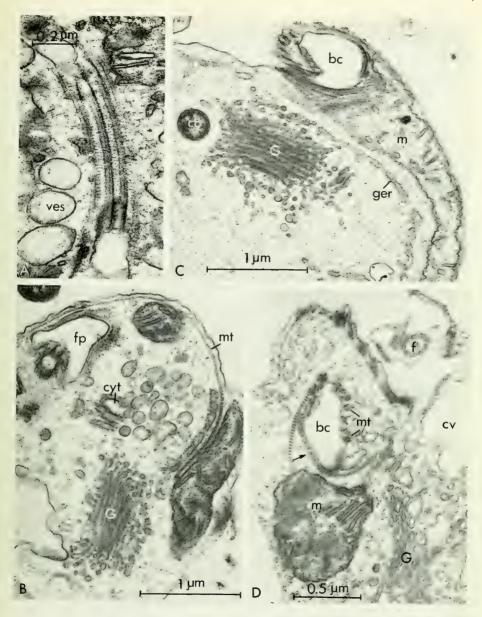
adjacent tubule pairs. × 56,700.

Fig. B. Longitudinal section of *B. saltans* which passes through the flagellar pocket and cytopharynx transversely. The microtubule dipping below the surface of the cell is one of many which eventually pass under the buccal cavity as shown in Fig. C. Note the position of the cytopharynx and the vesicles lying one one side of it. × 30,000.

Fig. C. Transverse section of the buccal cavity of B. saltans. Note the tract of microtubules

passing under the floor of this organelle. \times 30,000.

Fig. D. Longitudinal section of B, caudatus which passes through the buccal cavity and flagellar pocket transversely. The contractile vacuole lies next to the flagellar pocket. Microtubules destined to surround the cytopharynx are arranged in a row in this section. Note the row of tubules associated with the opposite wall of the buccal cavity. \times 40,000.



- Fig. A. Transverse section of the buccal cavity posterior to that shown in Pl. 4, Fig. D. The microtubules associated with the buccal cavity (between arrows) progressively move away from it. \times 50,000.
- Fig. B. Transverse section through the beginning of the cytopharynx of B. caudatus. The microtubules are arranging themselves around its walls. Microtubules associated with the cytopharynx are the same set as shown in the previous figure (between arrows). \times 50,000.
- Fig. C. Section of the mitochondrion showing the electron dense bodies which are sometimes found in the matrix. \times 24,000.
- Fig. D. Longitudinal section through B, saltans showing the mitochondrion passing to one side of the buccal cavity before travelling to the posterior end of the cell. Other features include the nucleus, food vacuoles and Golgi apparatus. \times 15,500.

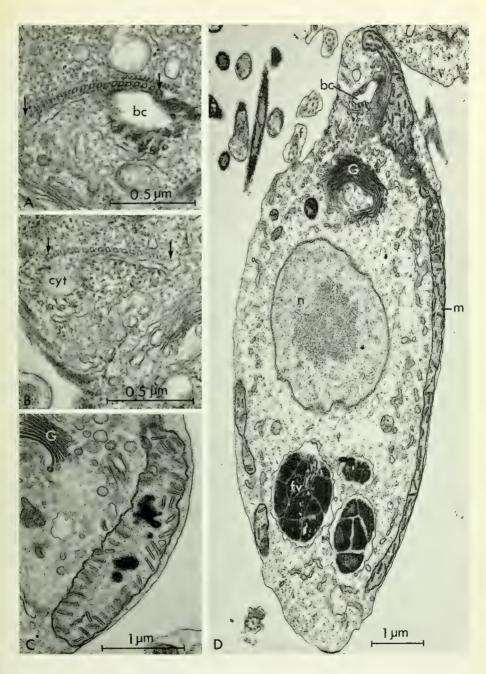
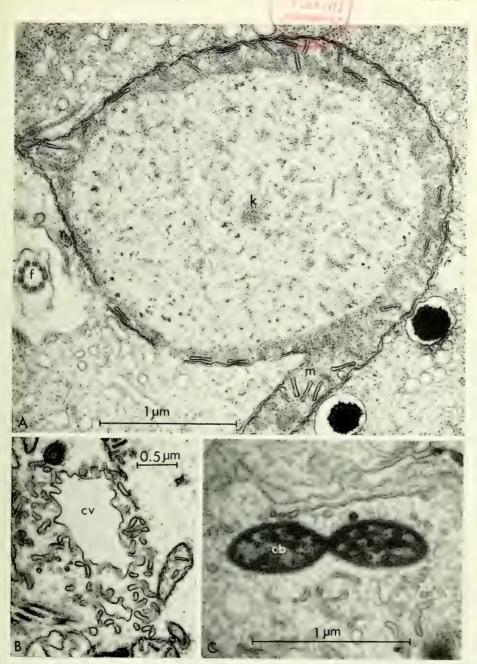


Fig. A. Section through the flat plane of the kinetoplast of *B. caudatus*. Note that the kinetoplast is composed of a reticulum of fine filaments with electron dense nodes interspersed between them. The matrix of the mitochondrion is visible at the periphery of the kinetoplast. 40,000.

Fig. B. Contractile vacuole and spongiome of B. saltans. \times 24,000.

Fig. C. Cytoplasmic bacterium of B. saltans in division. \times 46,000.











A LIST OF SUPPLEMENTS TO THE ZOOLOGICAL SERIES OF THE BULLETIN OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

 KAY, E. ALISON. Marine Molluscs in the Cuming Collection British Museum (Natural History) described by William Harper Pease. Pp. 96; 14 Plates. 1965. (Out of Print.) £3.75.

2. WHITEHEAD, P. J. P. The Clupeoid Fishes described by Lacepede, Cuvier and

Valenciennes. Pp. 180; II Plates, 15 Text-figures. 1967. £4.

3. TAYLOR, J. D., KENNEDY, W. J. & HALL, A. The Shell Structure of Mineralogy at the Bivalvia. Introduction. Nuculacea-Trigonacea. Pp. 125; 29 Plates, 77 Text-figures. 1969. £4.50.

4. HAYNES, J. R. Cardigan Bay recent Foraminifera (Cruises of the R.V. Antur)

1962-1964. (In press.)

THE TYPE SPECIMENS AND
IDENTITY OF THE SPECIES
DESCRIBED IN THE GENUS
LITHOBIUS BY C. L. KOCH AND
L. KOCH FROM 1841 TO 1878
(CHILOPODA: LITHOBIOMORPHA)

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 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$

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Pp. 103-150; 7 Text-figures

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TRUSTEES OF
THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

THE TYPE SPECIMENS AND IDENTITY OF THE SPECIES DESCRIBED IN THE GENUS *LITHOBIUS*BY C. L. KOCH AND L. KOCH FROM 1841 TO 1887 (CHILOPODA: LITHOBIOMORPHA)

By E. H. EASON

INTRODUCTION

CARL LUDWIG KOCH (C. L. Koch) described fifteen nominal species of Lithobius. His son, Dr. Ludwig Carl Christian Koch (L. Koch) redescribed most of his father's species and described thirty-two more and one variety. Subsequent authors have placed various interpretations on L. Koch's work, Latzel (1880) and Haase (1880) giving the earliest detailed and accurate accounts of what they considered to be the Kochs' western European species. These two authors, who were in correspondence with L. Koch and had access to some of his material, are in general agreement with one another and Latzel is universally recognized as the first authoritative reviser of both C. L. Koch's and L. Koch's species, although he dealt only with those found in the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. But in spite of Latzel's and Haase's work there is still uncertainty as to the identity of some of these species whereas most of those originally described by L. Koch from Greece and from Tinos in the Aegean Archipelago have never been revised and their identity has not hitherto been established.

Carl Koch gave a very brief account of the Koch Collection of Arachnida and Myriapoda (C. Koch, 1910) but he did not mention any species by name and merely enumerated those of each class attributable to C. L. Koch and to L. Koch. I have recently been able to examine the specimens of *Lithobius* in this Collection, the bulk of which is preserved in the British Museum (Natural History) and the remainder in the Zoological Museum, Berlin. It includes the original material of two of C. L. Koch's and twenty-three of L. Koch's species together with the specimens of ten of C. L. Koch's on which L. Koch seems to have based his redescriptions. The type specimens and identity of *L. grossipes* C. L. Koch and *L. litoralis* L. Koch have been discussed in a previous publication (Eason, 1970a) and in the present paper an attempt is made to determine the identity of the other species.

SPECIES DESCRIBED BY C. L. KOCH

The original descriptions of these species (1841, 1844, 1847) are very inadequate by modern standards, relying to a large extent on details of colour and other superficial features and omitting many of the characters now recognized as of taxonomic importance. Although habitat is mentioned, type localities are indefinite. In a later publication (C. L. Koch, 1863) amplified descriptions, coloured plates and line drawings are provided but in only a few cases are they of any real value. L. Koch

(1862) was the first to redescribe these species more adequately and it is reasonable to assume that he interpreted most of his father's original descriptions correctly.

According to C. Koch (1910) only a small minority of C. L. Koch's species of Myriapoda are represented in the Koch Collection by type specimens and L. Koch did not use the original material of his father's species of *Lithobius* for many of his redescriptions. Only L. grossipes and L. melanocephalus seem to have been redescribed from type specimens, both of which are present in the Collection. Of the other species, eleven were almost certainly redescribed from specimens L. Koch either collected himself, mostly from Nuremberg and the surrounding Franconian Jura, or had sent him by other collectors: all these specimens except those of L. impressus are present in the Collection. The remaining species, L. glabratus and L. varius, were unknown to L. Koch.

The original material belonging to all but two of C. L. Koch's species had probably already been either lost or badly damaged before 1862. The fact that C. L. Koch's later descriptions and illustrations did not appear until 1863 is no evidence of the continued existence of these specimens; the author died in 1857 so his book must have been compiled from earlier work and suffered delay in publication. It is therefore necessary to select neotypes from L. Koch's material for six of C. L. Koch's species whose identity needs to be established in order to ensure stability of nomenclature.

SPECIES DESCRIBED BY L. KOCH

The original descriptions of most of these species (1862, 1867, 1878) are fairly adequate. The number of antennal articles, prosternal teeth, coxal pores, tergal projections, and ventral spines on the fifteenth legs are all recorded, the ocelli are figured in many cases and the female gonopods are described where females were available. A notable omission, however, is any mention of coxolateral spines (VaC) or accessory apical claws on the fifteenth legs. Fairly definite type localities are given for most of the species but type specimens are not designated.

Of the twenty-three species and one variety represented by original material in the Koch Collection, eight were based on single specimens (holotypes) and sixteen on more than one specimen (syntypes): it is necessary to select lectotypes from only seven of the latter in order to ensure stability of nomenclature. Three further species are represented in the Collection by specimens apparently identified by L. Koch but which do not seem to belong to the original material. Two of these together with a further six which are not represented were all originally described from borrowed specimens which may never have formed part of the Collection. The chief source of these specimens was the collection of Graf von Keyserling of Munich. Part of the latter, consisting largely of insects, has been acquired by the British Museum (Natural History) but all attempts to trace the specimens of *Lithobius* both here and in the principal museums of Germany and Austria have failed.

METHODS

All the species described in the genus *Lithobius* by C. L. Koch and L. Koch are recorded in order of their dates of publication whether or not there is any material available for examination. Where more than one description applying to the

same zoological species occurs in the same work, whichever name Latzel (1880), their first reviser, believed to attach to the best description is regarded as having priority even though it may appear on a later page (Code, article 24a).

All the specimens in the Koch Collection labelled with the name of a species of *Lithobius* originally described either by C L. Koch or L. Koch have been examined. They are all preserved in spirit, each tube of specimens containing labels bearing the identity, usually the locality and sometimes the habitat and name of the collector. The labels belonging to the specimens in the Zoological Museum, Berlin have all been rewritten but at least one label in each of the tubes in the British Museum (Natural History) appears to be in L. Koch's hand.

In some instances L. Koch placed specimens of different species bearing a superficial resemblance to one another under the same name. Although he made relatively few mistakes over males which usually have the most characteristic features. he had difficulty in identifying females of similar species. For example, he failed altogether to recognize females of L. muticus C. L. Koch, placing nearly all of them with L. mutabilis L. Koch and identifying as L. muticus females of L. pelidnus Haase. On the other hand he never placed widely different stadia of the same species together and regarded many of them as taxonomically distinct. In the present study each specimen is recorded under the name given it by L. Koch but those he misdetermined are also given their correct identity and placed in separate tubes, retaining their original registered numbers. All labels are recorded exactly as written by Koch. Where they have been rewritten by some recent museum worker this is indicated; where they are difficult to interpret extra words of explanation are inserted and enclosed in square brackets. Descriptions of specimens are only given when some special feature or aberration requires emphasis, or when an adequate account of the species in question is not to be found in the literature; otherwise reference is made to a published description. When it is necessary to refer to an immature post-larval stadium, Verhoeff's (1905) terms are used for the larger species such as L. forficatus in which the life-history is well-known, but for the smaller species to which Verhoeff's terms cannot be strictly applied, the specimen are allotted to stadia corresponding to those described for L. variegatus Leach (Eason, 1964).

Selected neotypes and lectotypes are labelled as such and placed in separate tubes. Selection of the former presents no difficulty but some of the syntypical series of L. Koch's species for which lectotypes are selected consist of specimens belonging to more than one zoological species; here a lectotype is selected from the specimens answering most closely to the original description of the species in question, or where there is nothing to choose between them in this respect, from those belonging to the zoological species to which it is desirable to attach Koch's name in order to cause the least confusion in current nomenclature. The originally published type localities of most of C. L. Koch's and many of L. Koch's species are vague or equivocal: in these cases the designate type locality is that of the type specimen.

Conclusions as to the status and present generic classification of all the species described by C. L. Koch and L. Koch in the genus *Lithobius* together with their published and designate type localities, are summarised in Table I.

I. Lithobius impressus C. L. Koch

Lithobius impressus C. L. Koch, 1841: 224. 1863, 1:115, fig. 105a, b & c. L. Koch, 1862: 36, fig. 7a & b.

Type locality. Algerian coast.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. impressus [rewritten]" "Corsica, [leg.] E. Simon" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.326–340. Fifteen specimens which answer to the original description of *Lithobius impressus corsicus* Léger and Duboscq, 1903.

Remarks. Since the type locality is Algeria and L. Koch's description was based on specimens from Algiers and Oran borrowed from the Kyeserling Collection, none of the above specimens from Corsica can be selected as neotype. L. Koch must have identified them after finishing his book without attaching any significance to the hooked spine (DpP) on the 14th male prefemur which is characteristic of subsp. corsicus (Léger & Duboscq, 1903: 316, fig. 1) but never found in the North African form.

Silvestri (1897) regarded *L. nudicornis* Gervais as the correct name for this species but most authors reject *nudicornis* which was described very scantly from a Sicilian specimen (Gervais, 1837). On the other hand *impressus* is also rejected by many authors in favour of *L. clongatus* Newport which was published some years later (Newport in Lucas, 1849). However, quite apart from the fact that *impressus* takes precedence over *clongatus* there are good reasons for supposing that these names apply to two distinct subspecies (Eason, 1971) and the valid name for the common Algerian form, which belongs to the genus *Eupolybothrus* Verhoeff and the subgenus *Allopolybothrus* Verhoeff as emended by Jeekel (1967), is *Eupolybothrus* (*Allopolybothrus*) *impressus impressus* (C. L. Koch).

2. Lithobius dentatus C. L. Koch

Lithobius dentatus C. L. Koch, 1844: 22, fig. 22. 1847: 148. 1863, 1: 117, fig. 106a, b & c. L. Koch, 1862: 54, fig. 18.

Type locality. Germany.

Material examined. "Lithobius dentatus C. L. Koch, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool.Mus.Berlin: Kat.Nr.333. A male and a female, both mutilated.

"Lithobius dentatus C.K." "Eichstaedt, Happurg, Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.130–136. Six more or less mutilated specimens.

"Lithobius dentatus C.K." "Kärnthen [Carinthia, Austria]" B.M.[N.H.] Reg. no. 13.6.18.137. Two males and a female in fair condition.

"Lithobius dentatus C.K." "Meran [Merano, Italy], [lcg.] Milde" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.138. A mutilated male.

Type specimen. The best preserved specimen from Germany, a male 12 mm long answering to Latzel's (1880:81) description of L. dentatus var. alpestris, is here formally designated as the neotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.135). Of the localities given for this specimen, Happurg is 25 km. from Nuremburg and Eichstätt (= Eichstätt

staedt) is only 60 km. distant, so the designate type locality may be given as "Nuremberg district".

REMARKS. Since neither C. L. Koch nor L. Koch mentioned the dorsal sulci on the 14th and 15th male tibiae, Latzel believed he had discovered a new variety characterized by these sulci which he called *alpestris*. However, the tibial sulci are quite distinct in the neotype and in the only other males in the Collection with the 14th and 15th legs intact; they were also noted by Haase (1880: 24) as characteristic of the species so it is clear that they were merely overlooked by the Kochs and var. *alpestris* should be disregarded.

3. Lithobius calcaratus C. L. Koch

Lithobius calcaratus C. L. Koch, 1844: 23, fig. 23. 1863, 2:45, fig. 168 a & b. L. Koch, 1862: 70, fig. 30.

Type locality. Germany.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius calcaratus C. L. Koch, Franconia (Jura), leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 337. Four males and a female.

"Lithobius calcaratus C.K." "Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.18-33. Eight males and eleven females.

"Lithobius calcaratus C.K." "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.34-44. Seven males and a female together with three females of *L. pelidnus* Haase.

"Lithobius calcaratus C.K." "München" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.45. A female of L. muticus C. L. Koch.

"Lithobius calcaratus C.K." "Rom, [leg.] Seidlitz" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18. 46–52. Three males and two females together with four females of *L. erythrocephalus* C. L. Koch.

"calcaratus? Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.53-55 (part). A female each of L. muticus, L. mutabilis L. Koch and L. pusillus pusillifrater Verhoeff.

"Lithobius calcaratus C.K." "Nürnberg, missbildung der Analbeine" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.53-55 (part). A male with the left 15th leg missing and the right 15th leg imperfectly regenerated without a femoral process.

Type specimen. A well-preserved male 10.5 mm long from Nuremberg answering to Latzel's (1880: 105) description of *L. calcaratus* is here formally designated as the neotype (B M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.18).

REMARKS. All the above males, which are either fully mature or 4th post-larval stadia with the femoral process on the 15th leg at least partly developed, are correctly labelled as we would expect, since they are easily identified from C. L. Koch's original description and illustration; but of the twenty-six females L. Koch labelled "L. calcaratus", no fewer than eleven were misdetermined. In fact, females of this species are quite easy to identify owing to the characteristic arrangement of the ocelli and the spinulation of the legs, and Koch may have been misled by colour, a rather variable feature to which he paid undue attention in his descriptions.

In one of the males from the Franconian Jura (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.41) both 15th

legs are missing but a femoral process is present on the right 14th leg. This last character was used by Matic (1961) to define $Lithobius\ lanzae$ Matic which therefore seems to be based on an aberrant specimen of $L.\ calcaratus$.

4. Lithobius communis C. L. Koch

Lithobius communis C. L. Koch, 1844: 24, fig. 24. 1863, 2:47, fig. 169a & b. L. Koch, 1862: 80, fig. 37.

Type locality. Germany.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius communis C. L. Koch, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 341. A male and a female, both

mutilated 3rd post-larval stadia of L. mutabilis L. Koch.

"Lithobius communis C.K." "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.64–86. Twelve immature males of *L. mutabilis*, four being 2nd post-larval stadia and eight being 3rd post-larval stadia. In addition there are four males and three females of *L. pusillus pusillifrater*, three immature males of *L. pelidnus* and two immature males of *L. muticus*.

"Lithobius communis C.K." "[hab.] Haspelmooz" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.87. A mutilated female 3rd post-larval stadium of *L. mutabilis* and a female 4th post-larval stadium probably belonging to *L. lapidicola* Meinert (sensu Jeekel, 1964 non Latzel, 1880).

"Lithobius communis C.K." "Cusel [Rhineland Palatinate]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.88. A mutilated male 3rd post-larval stadium of L. mutabilis.

Remarks. Of the above specimens, only the 3rd post-larval stadia of *L. mutabilis* agree exactly with L. Koch's description of *L. communis*. All that needs to be added to this description is that the ventral spine on the 15th tibia is VaT, an accessory apical claw is present on the 15th leg, and T.13 bears feeble posterior projections. Latzel (1880: 102) suggested that L. Koch's description was based on immature specimens of *L. mutabilis* with the possible inclusion of males of *L. muticus* and *L. pelidnus*; he added that he had actually examined two of L. Koch's specimens of "communis" and found them to be immature males of *L. mutabilis* and *L. pelidnus*. However, neither the specimens of muticus nor those of pelidnus labelled "communis" by L. Koch have either the full complement of three ventral femoral spines or the single ventral tibial spine on the 15th leg as recorded by him for this form; nor are these spines present in *L. pusillus pusillifrater* in which the antennae are much shorter than in the example of *L. communis* illustrated by C. L. Koch (1863: fig. 169a). This last illustration does, in fact, resemble *L. mutabilis* more than any other species.

Latzel's tentative suggestion that *L. communis* C. L. Koch, 1844 is a synonym of *L. mutabilis* L. Koch, 1862 is therefore almost certainly justified and has been accepted by Haase (1880) and subsequent authors. But the name *L. communis* has not actually been used except as a junior synonym since Rosicky (1876) redescribed the species, and its revival would only cause confusion. It is intended therefore to ask the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature to use its plenary powers

to supress the name communis C. L. Koch 1844 as published in the binomen Lithobius communis C. L. Koch, and to supress the name minutus C. L. Koch 1847 as published in the binomen Lithobius minutus C. L. Koch (see p. 118), as so to validate Lithobius mutablis L. Koch.

5. Lithobius grossipes C. L. Koch

Lithobius grossipes C. L. Koch, 1847: 146. 1863, 1:67, fig. 57a, b & c. L. Koch, 1862: 32, fig. 4.

TYPE LOCALITY. Triest.

Type specimen. The holotype. B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.262.

Remarks. All the specimens identified as *L. grossipes* by L. Koch are in the British Museum (Natural History) and were discussed in a previous publication (Eason, 1970a). Reasons for believing that a female from Idrija is the holotype were given and it was shown that *Eupolybothrus grossipes* (C. L. Koch) is a valid species and not a synonym of *E. fasciatus* (Newport) as was previously supposed.

6. Lithobius punctulatus C. L. Koch

Lithobius punctulatus C. L. Koch, 1847: 147. 1863, 1:68, fig. 58a & b.? L. Koch, 1862: 30, fig. 3.

Type locality. Triest.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. punctulatus [rewritten]" "Dalmatien" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.586. A mutilated female of *Eupolybothrus* sp. 25 mm long with no legs and broken antennae.

"L. punctulatus [rewritten]" "Griechenland" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.587–588. Two cleared fragments of *Eupolybothrus* sp. with neither legs nor antennae, one from the head to T.9, the other from T.4 to the end of the body. Although obviously from different individuals, these fragments both seem to belong to the same species.

Remarks. L. Koch's account of L. punctulatus was based on examples from Dalmatia and Greece with all their legs missing so there is little doubt that the above specimens are those in question. This account describes the tergal projections as short and broad which led Latzel (1880:56) to suspect that L. Koch was describing examples of Eupolybothrus leptopus (Latzel): but the shape of these projections in all three specimens is quite consistent with a diagnosis of one of the fasciatus-grossipes group of species. The Dalmatian specimen, however, has II, 19, 2I and 2I coxal pores on the 12th to 15th legs respectively and this reduced number of pores, particularly those of the 12th, relative to those found in most examples of E. grossipes and related species of comparable size, is indeed rather suggestive of E. leptopus. On the other hand the fragment from Greece (with 24, 30, 32 and 27 coxal pores) is, in view of its locality, more likely to belong to E. litoralis (L. Koch), a species very close to E. grossipes.

C. L. Koch's descriptions and illustrations of L. punctulatus are difficult to interpret; there is no special reason to suppose that they apply either to E. leptopus or E. litoralis. Meinert (1872) used the name L. punctulatus C. L. Koch (probably correctly) to apply to E. grossipes but Latzel (1880: 52) argued that C. L. Koch's original (1847) and subsequent (1863) descriptions of punctulatus do not apply to a species of Eupolybothrus at all but to Lithobius validus Meinert, 1872. Latzel's opinion has been accepted by some authors although Meinert's name for the latter species continues to be used by others. Owing to the uncertainty surrounding the identity of C. L. Koch's original specimen and of those L. Koch used for his redescription, L. punctulatus should be rejected as a nomen dubium and the species with which Latzel equated it should be known as Lithobius validus Meinert.

7. Lithobius montanus C. L. Koch

Lithobius montanus C. L. Koch, 1847: 148. 1863, 2:8, fig. 132a & b. L. Koch, 1862: 27, fig. 1.

TYPE LOCALITY. South Tyrol.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius grossipes C.K." "Seiseralpe [an alpine hut in Italy], [lcg.] Gredler" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.266. A male of Eupolybothrus grossipes 35 mm long, agreeing in detail with L. Koch's description of L. montanus.

Remarks. L. Koch's rediscription of this form was based on a single male sent him by Prof. P. Gredler from "Seiseralpe" in South Tyrol so the above specimen is undoubtedly the one in question. C. L. Koch in his original (1847) and subsequent (1863) accounts of L. montanus described the colour as uniform reddish-brown, and his coloured plate (1863: fig. 132a) is of a pale brown specimen without the dark dorsal pattern he illustrated in a comparable coloured plate of L. grossipes (1863: fig. 57a). L. Koch described the colour of L. montanus as paler anteriorly than posteriorly, making no mention of a dark pattern, and it seems that this relatively pale colour together with a trivial structural aberration in the holotype of L. grossipes mentioned in his key led him to copy his father in supposing that montanus and grossibes were distinct species. Sometime between finishing his book and completing his collection he must have decided to discard these two characters as a means of differentiating species, changing the name of his specimen from montanus to grossipes. Latzel (1880: 48), while recognizing L. montanus as a synonym of L. grossipes, pointed out that it differs in colour from his own specimens, and Dalla Torre (1882) and Attems (1929) both retained the name montanus for a pale variety of L. grossipes. Although the holotype of L. grossipes has been dried and the original colour pattern had probably been lost before it was examined by L. Koch, many preserved specimens of L. grossipes show more evidence of a dark pattern than does L. Koch's specimen of montanus. However, colour is a poor taxonomic character in the Lithobiidae and there is no justification for regarding L. montanus as other than a synonym of L, grossipes.

8. Lithobius glabratus C. L. Koch

Lithobius glabratus C. L. Koch, 1847: 149. 1863, 1: 131, fig. 121a & b.

Type locality. Bavaria.

Remarks. L. Koch (1862) was not familiar with this species and there is no material referable to L. glabratus in the Koch Collection. Latzel, however, was satisfied as to its identity and gave a full description (Latzel, 1880: 74). Pocock (1890), after examining the type specimen of L. melanops Newport, 1845, proposed L. glabratus as a synonym and this species is now universally known as L. melanops Newport (see also Eason, 1971).

9. Lithobius agilis C. L. Koch

(Fig. 1)

Lithobius agilis C. L. Koch, 1847: 149. 1863, 1: 132, fig. 122a & b. L. Koch, 1862: 52, fig. 17.

Type locality. Bavaria.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius agilis C. L. Koch, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 334. A male and a female, both mutilated. "Lithobius agilis C. Koch" "Mögeldorf, [hab.] Erlenwälddren" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.4–8. Three males and two females in fair condition.

Type specimen. A fairly well-preserved female 9.5 mm long from Mögeldorf near Nuremburg answering to Latzel's (1880: 78) description of L. agilis is here formally designated as the neotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.4).

Remarks. The spurs on the gonopods of the neotype (Fig. 1) and the only other female in the Collection with intact gonopods (Kat. Nr. 334) are just as slender as those figured by Loksa (1948: fig. 3) as characteristic of *L. agilis pannonicus* Loksa from Hungary, although they are rather less expanded in the distal one third with the extremity less obviously serrate. Neither L. Koch nor Latzel figured these spurs but they both described them as long and slender. Loska may have been misled into assuming that the typical form of the species bears relatively short, stout spurs by Brolemann's (1930: fig. 429) figure of a specimen of *L. agilis* from the Pyrenees in which the external spur is barely three times longer than broad. The spurs of specimens of this species from Austria (Eason, 1964: fig. 414) are intermediate in shape between those figured by Brolemann and those of the neotype, so there is little justification for naming a subspecies on the basis of this character.

10. Lithiobus curtipes C. L. Koch

Lithobius curtipes C. L. Koch, 1847: 150. 1863, 2:7, fig. 131a & b. L. Koch, 1862: 68, fig. 29.

Type locality. Bavaria.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius curtipes C. L. Koch, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch

[rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 339. Four males and two females together with a male of L. aeruginosus L. Koch.

"Lithobius curtipes C. Koch" "Nürnberg, [hab.] Haspelmooz" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.111–121. Four males and four females together with a male and a female of *L. aeruginosus* and an immature male of *L. crassipes* L. Koch.

"curtipes, Franzensbad [Frantiskovy Lazne, Czechoslovakia]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg.

no. 13.6.18.122. A single female.

"Lithobius curtipes C. Koch" "Lithauen [Lithuania]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18. 123–126. Three males and a female.

"curtipes?, Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.127-128. Two immature

males.

"L. curtipes?, Böhmen [Bohemia] [rewritten]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.633-636. Two males and two females.

Type specimen. A well-preserved male 9 mm long from Nuremberg answering to Latzel's (1880: 130) description of L. curtipes is here formally designated as the neotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.111).

REMARKS. There is no doubt at all that the above specimens, other than the three examples of L. aeruginosus and the single one of L. crassipes, belong to the species known to western European authors as L. curtipes: the 15th tibial projection in the neotype and the other adult males is the same as that found in British specimens (Eason, 1951: fig. 1). The inclusion by L. Koch of examples of L. aeruginosus among those of L. curtipes may be accounted for by the fact that he based his original description of L. aeruginosus on immature males (one of them actually belonging to L. curtipes) and was unaware of the true nature of this species.

In order to understand the controversy surrounding the identity of *L. curtipes* it is necessary to consider the different interpretations placed by various authors on L. Koch's description. Since C. L. Koch only examined females he did not mention the 15th tibial projection, which is only found in males, in either of his descriptions, but L. Koch described it as "cinen kurzen kegelförmigen Forsatz." This is both imprecise and misleading, since the projection barely assumes a conical shape even when fully developed; but L. Koch also described and figured the arrangement of the ocelli (L. Koch, 1862: fig. 29) which is fairly characteristic. Stuxberg (1871:501) described the tibial projection rather more accurately as "en tydligt utskjutande rundad process" (a distinct projecting rounded process) as well as describing the arrangement of the ocelli.

Confusion began when Meinert, after examining the specimens on which Porat (1869) quite correctly based his records of L. curtipes, noted that the ocelli were not arranged exactly as figured by L. Koch and that the projection was borne on the 5th article of the 15th leg and not on the 4th as L. Koch stated, and assumed that these specimens did not belong to L. curtipes but represented a form of L. crassipes (Meinert, 1872: 341). Meinert also assumed that the projection he found on Porat's specimens was of a different shape from the conical projection described by L. Koch which he understood to refer to a more clearly differentiated process such as that found on the 15th femur of males of L. calcaratus: but his description of

this projection – "dannedes kun af et fremspringende Hjørne af Leddets Bagrand—en Rende forstattes ind paa Fremragningen" (formed only by a projecting corner of the posterior edge of the article, with a groove running onto the projection) – is the earliest really accurate account in the literature and there is no doubt that Porat's specimens did belong to L. curtipes. The arrangement of the ocelli in this species can be misleading as they may occur in irregular rows rather than in a rosette (Eason, 1964: 238) and the confusion over numbering the articles of the 15th legs must have been due either to an error on the part of Koch or to a misprint. Stuxberg (1876: 25) perpetuated Meinert's mistake and attributed his own earlier (1871) description of L. curtipes to L. crassipes.

Both Latzel (1880: 131) and Haase (1880: 39) rectified Meinert's mistake and gave adequate accounts of *L. curtipes* under its correct name, but they both repeated Koch's rather misleading expression, "kurzen kegelförmigen Forsatz", in describing the tibial projection, although Latzel supplemented this by mentioning the groove on the dorsal surface. Porat (1889) described the species correctly but gave no details of the shape of the tibial projection. It was, no doubt, the failure of most of these early western European authors to give really full and accurate accounts of the projection, and the fact that the best description, Meinert's, was attributed to *L. crassipes*, that led Muralewitsch (1926) and Loksa (1947) to apply the name *L. curtipes* C. L. Koch to an eastern European species which does not occur in Bavaria and which was originally described by Sseliwanoff (1880) from the Crimea. This species, *L. pusillus* Sseliwanoff, is very similar to *L. curtipes* but the rounded tibial projection is replaced by a small cylindrical spur very much the same in structure as the femoral process found in *L. calcaratus*, a structure wrongly envisaged by Meinert as occurring in *L. curtipes*.

Sseliwanoff (1880), who wrote in Russian, as well as describing L. pusillus, gave a clearly recognizable account of L. curtipes which he named as a new species, L. vicinus Sseliwanoff. Loksa (1947), who cannot have been familiar with Sseliwanoff's work, gave another very adequate account of L. curtipes which he named as another new species, L. baloghi Loksa. Some modern eastern European authors have followed Loksa's nomenclature, naming L. curtipes, which occurs at least as far east as the Caucasus, as L. baloghi, and L. pusillus Sseliwanoff as L. curtipes.

Although Sseliwanoff's paper describing L. pusillus appeared in volume II of Trudy Russkago Entomologicheskago Obshchestva, the volume for 1878, it was not actually published until 1880 and Garbowski (1897), assuming the name to be preoccupied by L. pusillus Latzel, 1880, proposed the new name sseliwanoffi for Sseliwanoff's species; but this proposal has never been followed. L. pusillus Sseliwanoff seems to have been described repeatedly by various authors either as a new species or as a subspecies of L. curtipes. L. ferganensis Trotzina may prove to be its valid name (Lignau, 1914) but Trotzina's (1893) description is not altogether clear. L. curtipes turkestanicus Attems, the original description of which is accompanied by an illustration of the tibial projection (Attems, 1904: fig. 2), is undoubtedly identical with L. pusillus Sseliwanoff and the species has recently become known as L. turkestanicus Attems, while the true L. curtipes continues to be known as L. baloghi in eastern Europe.

A final point of nomenclatural interest is that *L. curtipes* C. L. Koch was designated by Verhoeff (1905) as the type species of the subgenus *Monotarsobius* to which *L. turkestanicus* also belongs.

II. Lithobius erythrocephalus C. L. Koch

Fig. 2

Lithobius erythrocephalus C. L. Koch, 1847: 150. 1863, 2:22, fig. 145a, b & c. L. Koch, 1862: 68, fig. 39.

Type locality. Bayaria.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius erythrocephalus C. K." "Happurg" B.M. (N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.139-141. Two males and a female.

"Lithobius erythrocephalus C.K." "[hab.] Glaishammer Wälddren" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.142 151. Nine females together with a female of L. mutabilis.

"Lithobius erythrocephalus C.K." "Bozen [Bolzano, Italy]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.152. A single female.

Type specimen. A well-preserved female 13 mm long from Happurg in the Franconian Jura answering to Latzel's (1880: 110) description of *L. crythrocephalus* is here formally designated as the neotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.139).

Remarks. A number of subspecies of *L. crythrocephalus* have been described depending for their definition on the shape of the spurs on the female gonopods, the sculpturing of the male 15th tibiae, the shape of the short tergites, and the number of antennal articles. The genital spurs of the neotype are figured (Fig. 2) and those of the other females recorded above are of much the same shape. The 15th tibiae of the males from Happurg are oval in cross-section, without secondary sexual characters. All specimens of both sexes have feeble posterior projections on T.13 and their antennal articles vary from 29 to 31.

The neotype and other females all agree with the modern conception of the nominate subspecies, but Dobroruka (1962) stated that the males of this subspecies have flattened 15th tibiae. This feature is not shown by the males from Happurg (the designate type locality) although other males of *L. crythrocephalus* in the Collection from the Franconian Jura labelled "mutabilis" by L. Koch (B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18. 459–460) do have markedly flattened 15th tibiae: it thus seems that this is an unstable character, not associated with any particular subspecies (see also Eason, 1970b).

12. Lithobius muticus C. L. Koch

Lithobius muticus C. L. Koch, 1847:151. 1863, 1:118, fig. 107a & b. L. Koch, 1862:79, fig. 36.

TYPE LOCALITY. Bavaria.

Material examined. "muticus, Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18 532–533. Two females of L. calcaratus.

"L. muticus [rewritten]" "Eichstaedt, Happurg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.

534-550. Six males of L. muticus, six females of L. pelidnus, and four females and one male of L. mutabilis,

"L. muticus [rewritten]" "[hab.] Valzner Weiher" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18 551-562. Four males of L. muticus and eight females of L. pelidnus.

"L. muticus [rewritten]" "München" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.536-566. Two males and a female of L. muticus and a female of L. mutabilis.

Type specimen. A male 13 mm long from Eichstätt or Happurg, both in the Franconian Jura, is here formally designated as the neotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18. 534). This is the largest and best preserved available specimen of *L. muticus*, showing the characteristic broad head and the small setose swelling on the 14th tibia, and agreeing in all respects with Latzel's (1880:116) description of males of this species.

REMARKS. The characteristic swelling on the 14th tibia of the male was not mentioned either by C. L. Koch or L. Koch in their published descriptions of L. muticus, but L. Koch did mention it in private correspondence with Latzel (Latzel, 1880: 119) so there is no doubt about the identity of the males on which he based his description. The same cannot, however, be said of the females.

In his key L. Koch contrasted the incurved internal pair of spurs on the gonopods of L. mutabilis with the straight spurs of those of L. muticus in order to differentiate between females of these two species; he also described the claw of the gonopod of L. muticus as tripartite. In fact, incurving of these spurs, although not invariable, is usually more marked in muticus than in mutabilis and the claw of muticus has the external denticle so reduced as to appear bipartite. It seems, therefore, that L. Koch did not have females of L. muticus before him when he described this species but those of L. pelidnus and L. mutabilis in which the internal spurs, particularly in pelidnus, are often straight and the claw always tripartite. Most of the females of L. muticus in the Collection were identified by L. Koch as L. mutabilis.

C. L. Koch's original description of this species is unsatisfactory but his illustrations of a female (C. L. Koch, 1863: fig. 107) resemble the species regarded as L. muticus more than any other and there is no reason to dispute its identity.

13. Lithobius varius C. L. Koch

Lithobius varius C. L. Koch, 1847: 151. 1863, 1: 128, fig. 118a & b.

Type locality. Bavaria.

REMARKS. L. Koch (1862) was not familiar with this species and there is no material referable to L. varius in the Koch Collection. C. L. Koch's illustrations of a female (C. L. Koch, 1863: fig. 118) are quite consistent with Latzel's (1880: 126) suggestion that this species may be identical with L. aeruginosus L. Koch, but there is no certainty of this and L. varius should be rejected as a nomen dubium.

14. Lithobius minutus C. L. Koch

Lithobius minutus C. L. Koch, 1847; 152. 1863, 1: 129, fig. 119a & b. L. Koch, 1862; 84, fig. 40.

Type locality. Bavaria.

Material examined. "Lithobius minutus C. L. Koch, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 342. Twelve badly mutilated immature specimens of Lithobius sp. with neither legs nor antennae, probably 1st and 2nd post-larval stadia of L. mutabilis.

"L. minutus [rewritten]" "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18. 387–400. Fourteen 1st post-larval stadia of L. mutabilis together with a 2nd post-larval

stadium of another species, probably L. pusillus pusillifrater.

"L. minutus [rewritten]" "[hab.] Haspelmooz" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.401. A 4th larval stadium and three badly mutilated 1st post-larval stadia, all probably belonging to L. pusillus pusillifrater.

"L. minutus [rewritten]" "Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.402–433. Thirty-two immature specimens of L. mutabilis ranging from a 4th larval stadium

to 2nd post-larval stadia.

Remarks. Of the above specimens, only the 1st post-larval stadia of L. mutabilis agree exactly with L. Koch's description of L. minutus. Latzel (1880 : 228) gave L. minutus as a synonym of L. mutabilis and Haase (1880 : 32) redescribed the form in some detail, coming to the same conclusion. Although it is undoubtedly a senior synonym of L. mutabilis (and a junior synonym of L. communis), the name has not been used by subsequent authors, and, in order to validate L. mutabilis, it is intended to ask the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature to use its plenary powers to suppress the name minutus C. L. Koch 1847 as published in the binomen Lithobius minutus C. L. Koch, and to suppress the name communis C. L. Koch 1844 as published in the binomen Lithobius communis C. L. Koch (see also p. 111).

15. Lithobius inermis L. Koch

Lithobius inermis L. Koch in Rosenhauer, 1856: 415. L. Koch, 1862: 65, fig. 26.

Type locality. Malaga, Spain.

Remarks. L. inermis was originally described from a specimen borrowed from the Rosenhauer Collection. Dr. Egon Popp, curator of the Zoologische Staatssammlung, Munich, informs me that many of Rosenhauer's specimens were sold to the Alte Akademie, Munich, the precursor of the Staatssammlung, but that most of them were destroyed during the Second World War. Whether the type specimen of L. inermis was among this material is not known, but it has not been found in Munich and there is no record of Rosenhauer having deposited any of her specimens elsewhere. Koch's earlier (1856) description of this species is very scanty but his subsequent (1862) one is recognizable and Brolemann (1926: 264) described it very fully.

16. Lithobius festivus L. Koch

Lithobius festivus L. Koch 1862: 29, fig. 2.

Type locality. Garmisch, Bavaria.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. Among the specimens Koch correctly identified as L. grossipes the holotype and most of the specimens from South Tyrol bear an additional name, "festivus", in Koch's hand. But the only specimen of this species in the Collection from Garmisch is merely labelled "Lithobius grossipes" "Garmisch" (see also Eason, 1970a).

Type specimen. L. festivus was originally described from a male and a female from Garmisch borrowed from the Keyserling Collection. The specimen referred to above, a male pseudomaturus 24 mm long, in spite of being labelled "L. grossipes" and having 49 antennal articles (Koch gave 46–47), is in agreement with Koch's description in other respects and is undoubtedly the male in question, the sole surviving syntype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.293). The female syntype must have been returned to the Keyserling Collection and has not been found.

Remarks. C. L. Koch based *Lithobius grossipes* on an aberrant specimen and *L. montanus* (= grossipes) on a specimen without the dark dorsal pattern on the tergites frequently found in grossipes (see p. 112). *L. festivus* was based on smaller specimens with the dorsal pattern distinct but with the ocelli of the superior row round, and not oval as in large adults. It is not surprising, therefore, that L. Koch at first thought that he was dealing with three distinct species. But it is clear from his labelling of his specimens that he later realised their true identity although he may, at one stage, have regarded festivus as a variety of grossipes and only finally as a true synonym.

17. Lithobius transmarinus L. Koch

Lithobius transmarinus L. Koch, 1862: 33, fig. 5.

Type locality. New Orleans, U.S.A.

REMARKS. The identity of L. transmarinus is discussed along with that of the next species.

18. Lithobius mordax L. Koch

Lithobius mordax L. Koch, 1862: 34, fig. 6.

Type locality. New Orleans, U.S.A.

REMARKS. L. transmarinus and L. mordax seem each originally to have been described from a single specimen, a female and a male respectively, borrowed from the Keyserling Collection: neither of these has been found. There is little in the original descriptions of these two species to suggest that they are distinct from one another and some authors have regarded them as identical. Bollman (1893) believed them both to be synonyms of L. spinipes Say, 1821, but Brolemann (1896) disputed this synonymy and regarded them both as distinct species. Chamberlin

(1911) at one time believed transmarinus to be the female of morday but in a later publication (Chamberlin, 1925b) he described them as separate species of Neolithobius Stuxberg. These descriptions of Chamberlin's seem to apply to two distinct species and their validity has not recently been disputed.

19. Lithobius trilineatus L. Koch

Lithobius trilineatus L. Koch, 1862: 37, fig. 8.

Type locality. Bahia, Brazil.

Material examined. "L. trilineatus, Bahia [rewritten]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.651. A female of L. fortificatus 20 mm long with the 14th and 15th legs missing.

Type specimen. L. trilineatus was originally described from a male and a female from Bahia borrowed from the Keyserling Collection. The above specimen of L. forficatus agrees with this description and is undoubtedly the female in question, the sole surviving syntype. The male syntype must have been returned to the Keyserling Collection and has not been found.

Remarks. Koch distinguished this form from L, forficatus by means of a number of sulci he observed on the 15th legs, but these are not reliable characters in L, forficatus. Synonymy of L, trilineatus with L, forficatus was first proposed by Fedrizzi (1877) and has never been disputed. As Brolemann (1909) pointed out, the species must have been introduced to Brazil.

20. Lithobius forficatus var. villosus L. Koch

Lithobius forficatus var. villosus L. Koch, 1862:41.

Type locality. Bavarian Alps.

Material examined. "Lithobius forficatus L." "var. villosus, Bayer. Alpen" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. No. 13.6.18.242. A male of L. forficatus 22 mm long with the 15th legs missing.

"forficatus var. villosus, Alpen" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.245-246. A male

and a female of L. forficatus.

Type specimen. L. forficatus var. villosus was originally described from a single male and although the male labelled "Bayer. Alpen" has 10, 9, 9 and 7 coxal pores on the 12th and 15th legs respectively (Koch gave 9, 9, 9, 6) it agrees with this description in other respects and is undoubtedly the holotype.

Remarks. Koch distinguished var. villosus from the typical form of the species by the larger number of ocelli and coxal pores, the longer 15th legs, and a number of other quite trivial characters. Although the 15th legs of the holotype are missing, those of the other two specimens of villosus in the Collection are barely longer than is usual in L. forficatus. The other characters of the holotype also fall well within normal limits for the species and villosus has never been regarded as a valid variety or subspecies.

21. Lithobius parisiensis L. Koch

Lithobius parisiensis L. Koch, 1862: 42, fig. 10.

Type locality. Paris.

Remarks. The original description of L. parisiensis was based on a single specimen borrowed from the Keyserling Collection which has not been found. It was described, like L. trilineatus, as having sulci on the 15th legs, but as differing from both L. trilineatus and L. forficatus in having more ocelli (39), prosternal teeth (8 + 8) and coxal pores (9, 10, 9, 7). Stuxberg (1871) suggested L. parisiensis as a possible synonym of L. forficatus but Haase (1880), who had examined Keyserling's specimen, believed it to be a distinct species. However, all the distinctive features of this form are sometimes found in large specimens of L. forficatus and, although there is every possibility of an introduced centipede being found in Paris, there is no known species of Lithobius to which the description of parisiensis might apply other than forficatus and there is little doubt that Stuxberg was correct.

22. Lithobius muscorum L. Koch

Lithobius muscorum L. Koch, 1862: 43, fig. 11.

Type locality. Germany.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. muscorum [rewritten]" "[hab.] Valzner Weiher" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.434. A female pseudomaturus of L. forficatus 14 mm long.

Type specimen. The original description of L. muscorum was based on a single female and agrees well with the above specimen of L. forficatus which is undoubtedly the holotype. No locality was given in the original description, nor is there a locality label accompanying the holotype, so the presumption is that the specimen was found somewhere in Germany.

Remarks. Of the features Koch regarded as characteristic of this form, the circular coxal pores are commonly found in immature stadia of L. forficatus, the rather short antennae with only 33 articles are just within normal limits for the pseudomaturus of this species and the shape of the tergal projections which Koch mentions in his key is quite unremarkable in the holotype. Synonymy of L. muscorum with L. forficatus was first proposed by Stuxberg (1871) and has never been disputed.

23. Lithobius hortensis L. Koch

Lithobius hortensis L. Koch, 1862: 45, fig. 12.

Type localities. Nuremberg; Landstuhl, Rhineland Palatinate.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius hortensis L. Koch, Syntypen, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 335. Two male pseudomaturus and a small adult female of L. forficatus.

"L. hortensis [rewritten]" "Nürnberg, [hab.] in Gärten" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.303 318 (part). Five males and eleven females of *L. forficatus*, all either praematurus, pseudomaturus or small adults.

"L. hortensis [rewritten]" "Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.303-318 (part). Four exuviae of L. forficatus. Two appear to be from adult males, one

from a male pseudomaturus and the other from a female pseudomaturus.

"L. hortensis [rewritten]" "Landstuhl" B.M. (N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.319-321.

Two male pseudomaturus and a small adult female of *L. forficatus*.

Type specimens. The original description of L, hortensis was based on a number of specimens of both sexes and all the above examples of L, forficatus, except the exuviae, seem to belong to the syntypical series.

Remarks. Koch distinguished this form from L, muscorum, with which it agrees in having circular coxal pores, by the longer antennae and the shape of the tergal projections neither of which have any taxonomic significance. In fact, the coxal pores in some of the larger and more mature syntypes are oval but in no case are

they oblong or split-shaped as in most large adults of L. forficatus.

Synonymy of L, hortensis with L, forficatus was first proposed by Meinert (1868) and has been accepted by most authors. Latzel (1880:61), however, suggested that adults of L, forficatus with circular coxal pores might be regarded as a variety (subspecies) and Verhoeff (1937) considered this form, which he called L, forficatus var. hortensis, to be predominant in the Mediterranean region. But there is no justification for retaining hortensis as the name of a subspecies or even a variety since the shape of the coxal pores in adults of L, forficatus varies continuously, showing every gradation in shape from circular, oval, oblong to slit-shaped even in specimens from the same locality.

24. Lithobius sordidus L. Koch

Lithobius sordidus L. Koch, 1862: 47, fig. 13.

Type locality. Munich district.

Remarks. The original description of L. sordidus was based on a single female borrowed from the Keyserling Collection which has not been found. It seems to apply to a pseudomaturus of L. piccus L. Koch with only 43 antennal articles, no ventral spines on the 15th tibia and only 2+2 spurs on the gonopods. Latzel's (1880:64) proposal of L, sordidus as a synonym of L, piccus is probably justified.

25. Lithobius fossor L. Koch

Lithobius fossor L. Koch, 1862: 48, fig. 14.

Type locality. Grütz, near Nuremberg; Ehrenbürg, Franconian Jura.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius fossor L.K." "Gritz [Grütz]" B.M. (N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.248. A male pseudomaturus of L. piccus 11.5 mm long.

"Lithobius fossor L. Koch" "Ehrenbürg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.249. A male pseudomaturus of L. piceus 12.5 mm long.

Type specimens. Although neither of the above specimens of L. piceus agrees with the original description of L. fossor in every detail, there is little doubt that they are the two males on which this description was based and are therefore the syntypes.

Remarks. Koch distinguished this form from L sordidus by the more numerous antennal articles and the presence of two ventral spines on the 15th tibia. The syntypes have 52 and 47 antennal articles respectively (Koch gave 49) and VaT is the only ventral spine on the 15th tibia of either specimen. A second ventral spine on this article (VmT) is most unusual in L piceus and it is unlikely that Koch had any specimens before him other than these two syntypes when he wrote his rather inaccurate description. Synonymy of L fossor with L piceus was first proposed by Latzel (1880: 64) and has never been disputed.

26. Lithobius piceus L. Koch

Fig. 7

Lithobius piceus L. Koch, 1862: 49, fig. 15.

Type locality. Garmisch, Bavaria.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "piceus, fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.577. A female pseudomaturus.

"piceus?, Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.578-579. Two female pseudomaturus.

REMARKS. L. piceus was originally described from a mature female borrowed from the Keyserling Collection which has not been found. None of the above specimens belong to the original material and must have been named by Koch after he had finished writing his book. Garmisch, the type locality of L. piceus, is only some 200 Km. from Nuremberg and the Franconian Jura and there is no reason to doubt that the specimens from these localities are identical with the form originally described, but owing to their immaturity none of them is suitable for selection as a neotype.

Koch distinguished *L. piceus* from *L. sordidus* and *L. fossor* by the more numerous antennal articles, occili and coxal pores, all features of maturity. Like fossor, piceus was described as having two ventral spines on the 15th tibia, presumably VmT in addition to the usual VaT: although Haase (1880) mentioned an occasional second ventral spine on this article, it was not mentioned either by Latzel (1880) or Brolemann (1930) in their descriptions of *L. piceus*. Tobias (1969) examined 80 examples of this species from the Pyrenees and found 15VmT on one side of one individual only, so that either the type specimen was unusual or, as in the case of *L. fossor*, Koch was mistaken.

Another character Koch used to distinguish between *piceus* and *sordidus* was the number of spurs on the female gonopods, 3 + 3 in the former and 2 + 2 in the latter. The female pseudomaturus of *piceus* frequently has the full complement of 3 + 3 spurs but the internal pair are very small or may be absent. The female in the

Collection from the Franconian Jura has 3 + 3 spurs but those from Nuremberg have 3 + 2 and 2 + 2, and it was probably this that led Koch to be uncertain of

their identity.

Perhaps the most significant feature shown by the above examples of L. piceus. as well as by both of those of L. fossor, is the relative slenderness of the tarsi and metatarsi of the 15th legs, the distal extremity of the tibia being broader than the base of the tarsus in the ratio 3:2 (Fig. 7). Brolemann's figure of L. piccus gracilitarsis Brolemann (Brolemann, 1030; fig. 400) shows about the same relative change in breadth between these two adjacent articles and it seems that he (Brolemann, 1898) described this subspecies from the Pyrenees on the assumption that it differed from the typical form in this respect. However, in addition to Koch's specimens, English examples and those from Italy (Eason, 1964: figs 342 & 343), the latter answering to the description of L. piceus verhoeffi Demange, 1958, show that same abrupt transition in the breadth of the leg at the 15th tibiotarsal articulation so it seems that this character is widespread throughout the species. Moreover, L. piceus gracilitarsis was recorded by Negrea (1965) from Transylvania and by Folkmanova (1951, 1954) and Folkmanova and Lang (1955, 1960) from a number of localities in Czechoslovakia and southern Poland, and although Matic and Darabantu (1968) suggested that the slender tarsi of the specimens on which some of these records were based may be features of immaturity, this is not the case in English specimens. On the other hand Brolemann (1030: 262) described the Alpine form of L. piceus (which he regarded as the nominate subspecies) as having no abrupt transition in breadth between the 15th tibia and tarsus. It we assume that most records of L. piccus refer to this latter form, the comparative distribution of L. piceus and L. p. gracilitarsis does not suggest that we are dealing with two subspecies but that the shape of the 15th legs in L. piceus is variable and that subsp. gracilitarsis has no real status. There is also the possibility that some records of L. piceus piceus in the literature may refer to a closely related species, L. peregrinus Latzel, 1880, in which the 15th tarsi and metatarsi are relatively stout.

27. Lithobius coriaceus L. Koch

Lithobius coriaceus L. Koch, 1862: 51, fig. 16.

Type locality. Germany.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius coriaceus L.K." "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.88–91. Two agenitalis II and a male immaturus of *L. forficatus*. "Lithobius coriaceus L.K." "Gritz [Grütz, near Nuremberg], [hab.] Garten" B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.92-96. Two agenitalis I, an agenitalis II and two male imma-

turus of *L. forficatus*.

"Lithobius coriaceus L.K." "Dietenhofen [Franconian Jura]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg.

no. 13.6.18.97. An agenitalis II of L. forficatus.

Type specimens. The original description of L. coriaccus was based on a number of specimens and all the above examples of L. forficatus seem to belong to the syntypical series.

Remarks. Koch had both sexes of the stadium immaturus as well as agenitalis (which he took to be males) before him when he described this form, so the above series which does not include females is incomplete. Of the key characters given by Koch, 4+4 prosternal teeth is exceeded in one immaturus (4+5) while two ventral spines are never found on the 15th tibia of the agenitalis of L. forficatus, so his description is not altogether accurate. Synonymy of L. coriaceus with L. forficatus was first proposed by Stuxberg (1871) and has never been disputed.

28. Lithobius velox L, Koch

Lithobius velox L. Koch, 1862: 56, fig. 19.

Type localities. Landstuhl, Rhineland Palatinate; Franconia; Vienna district.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. velox [rewritten]" "Landstuhl" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.616-617. A male and a female of L. melanops Newport.

"L. velox [rewritten]" "Dietenhofen [Franconian Jura]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no.

13.6.18.618. A male 4th post-larval stadium of L. melanops.

"L. velox [rewritten]" "Wien" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.619. A mutilated female of L. melanops.

Type specimens. The original description of L, velox was based on a number of specimens of both sexes and all the above examples of L, melanops certainly belong to the syntypical series.

Remarks. The size, the number of ocelli, and the number of coxal pores both in Koch's description and in the syntypes are all close to the lower normal range for adults and the upper range for 4th post-larval stadia of L. melanops. Meinert (1868) suggested L. velox as a possible synonym of L. bucculentus L. Koch, under which he was probably describing examples of L. melanops. Synonymy of L. velox with L. glabratus (= melanops) was first proposed by Latzel (1880: 74) and has never been disputed.

29. Lithobius bucculentus L. Koch

Lithobius bucculentus L. Koch, 1826: 57, fig. 20.

Type locality. Munich district.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "bucculentus Mein.(?), Ratzes [Rasa, Italy] leg. Milde" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.17. A single male of L. tricuspis Meinert.

Remarks. Koch's original description of *L. bucculentus* as having sharp posterior projections on T.9, II and I3, and the antennae and I5th legs both over half the body-length is much more suggestive of *L. tricuspis* than of *L. mclanops* (of which it has hitherto been regarded as a synonym), but this description was based on a male from Munich borrowed from the Keyserling Collection which has not been found, and the specimen from Rasa in the South Tyrol is not the holotype; nor can the latter be selected as neotype as it was taken too far from the type locality and Koch was uncertain of its identity. This uncertainty may have been due to the presence, on the specimen from Rasa, of a ventral spine (VaT) on the I5th tibia, a spine which

may be absent in *L. tricuspis* (Eason, 1965) and which Koch did not mention in the original description. Although 15 VaT rarely if ever occurs in *L. melanops*, Meinert (1868) did mention a single variable ventral spine of the 15th tibia in his redescription of *L. bucculentus*, possibly because he based it on examples of *tricuspis* as well as of *melanops*, and this may have led Koch to attach Meinert's name to the specimen from Rasa which he probably examined after he had read Meinert's paper.

Stuxberg's (1871) description of L. bucculentus is general enough to include all species of Lithobius with more than seven ocelli on each side, 2+2 prosternal teeth, and posterior projections on T.9, II and I3: he included all the nominal species known to him which are embraced by this definition in his synonymy. Meinert's (1868) and Haase's (1880) descriptions of this species are identical with each other, much more restricted than Stuxberg's, and more likely to refer almost exclusively to L. melanops. Latzel (1880: 74) gave a full description of L. glabratus (= melanops) and proposed L. bucculentus as a synonym. But it is fairly certain that all these authors were mistaken and that L. bucculentus is the senior synonym of L. tricuspis Meinert, 1872. However, the name has not been used for well over fifty years and to revive it would cause confusion. It is intended therefore to ask the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature to use its plenary powers to suppress the name bucculentus L. Koch 1862 as published in the binomen Lithobius bucculentus L. Koch, so as to validate Lithobius tricuspis Meinert.

30. Lithobius melanocephalus C. L. Koch

Lithobius melanocephalus C. L. Koch in L. Koch, 1862: 58, fig. 21. C. L. Koch, 1863, 1: 130, fig. 120a & b.

Type locality. Ehrenbürg, Franconian Jura.

Material examined. "L. melanocephalus [rewritten]" "Ehrenbürg" B.M. (N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.384-385. A male and female of L. melanops.

Type specimens. The original description of L, melanocephalus was based on a male and a female and the above two examples of L, melanops are undoubtedly the syntypes.

Remarks. L. Koch attributed this species to his father and the later description (C. L. Koch, 1863) was no doubt made from one of C. L. Koch's specimens: but the first description to be published, based on L. Koch's two specimens, must stand as the original. There is no reason to suppose that C. L. Koch's illustration of L. melanocephalus refers to L. dentatus as Latzel (1880: 76) suggested; in this figure (C. L. Koch, 1863: fig. 120a) the tergal projections do indeed resemble those of L. dentatus but the antennae are only two-fifths of the body-length with 34 articles which is typical of L. melanops and quite unlike L. dentatus in which the antennae are about three-fifths of body-length with 50 to 60 articles: C. L. Koch is likely enough to have made a slight error in outlining the shape of the tergites but is much less likely to have been mistaken over the antennae.

The size, the number of ocelli, and the number of coxal pores both in L. Koch's description and in the syntypes are close to the upper normal range for adults of

L. melanops. L. Koch described L. melanocephalus as resembling L. bucculentus (=tricuspis) in having three ventral spines on the 15th femur but differing in having blunt tergal projections; although a third ventral femoral spine (15VpF), which is almost invariable in L. tricuspis, is quite common in large specimens of L. melanops, it is only present on the left 15th leg of the female syntype (the 15th legs of the male syntype are missing); the tergal projections in the syntypes as in all specimens of L. melanops are, of course, noticeably blunter than in L. tricuspis.

Meinert (1872) and Haase (1880) suggested L. melanocephalus as a possible synonym of L. bucculentus under which they were probably describing examples of L. melanops. Latzel (1880: 74), in spite of his doubt about the identity of C. L. Koch's figure had no doubt about L. Koch's description and was the first to propose L. melano-

cephalus as a synonym of L. glabratus (= melanops).

31. Lithobius venator L. Koch

Lithobius venator L. Koch, 1862: 59, fig. 22.

Type locality. Ehrenbürg, Franconian Jura.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. venator [rewritten]" "Ehrenbürg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.620. A female of L. melanops 13 mm long.

"L. venator [rewritten]" "Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.621-629.

Ten more or less mutilated specimens of L. nigrifrons Latzel and Haase.

"L. venator [rewritten]" $^{"}$ [?]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.630-631. A male and a female of L. melanops.

"nigrifrons? venator?, Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.570-573. Four mutilated 1st post-larval stadia of *L. melanops*.

Type specimen. The original description of L. venator was based on a single female and although the above female of L. melanops from Ehrenbürg has 36 antennal articles (Koch gave 38) and 1 + 4, 4, 2 ocelli (Koch gave 1 + 4, 4, 3 and figured 1 + 4, 3, 2) it agrees with this description in other respects and is undoubtedly the holotype.

Remarks. Koch distinguished this form from L. melanocephalus by the fewer ocelli and the absence of the third ventral spine on the 15th femur, and from L. velox by the shape of the internal margins of the tergal projections; none of these characters has any taxonomic significance. Koch's labelling of examples of L. nigrifrons as L. venator is not surprising as this species answers equally well to the original description of L. venator and Latzel (1880:73) suspected that nigrifrons and venator might be identical. But Koch, in private correspondence with Latzel (Latzel, 1880:73), confirmed that his three specimens of L. venator (no doubt the holotype and the two specimens from an indecipherable locality) had accessory apical claws on the 15th legs, claws which are present in L. melanops but not in L. nigrifrons.

The identity of *L. venator* has not hitherto been definitely established. Meinert (1868) suggested it as a possible synonym of *L. bucculentus* (i.e. *L. melanops*). Stuxberg (1871) gave the same synonymy but also included such diverse species as

L. dentatus, L. agilis and L. intrepidus Meinert as synonyms so one cannot be sure which species he had in mind. Latzel (1880: 74) suggested L. venator as a possible synonym of L. glabratus (· melanops) but he was not altogether satisfied as to its identity. The only descriptions of species under L. venator L. Koch, other than the original, are those of Porat (1869) and Sseliwanoff (1880); these are both difficult to interpret but they probably refer to L. melanops. Attems (1927) regarded venator as a subspecies of L. melanops without the accessory apical claw on the 15th leg, but this use of the name is quite wrong. L. venator is definitely a synonym of L. melanops.

32. Lithobius minimus L. Koch

Lithobius minimus L. Koch, 1862: 61, fig. 23.

Type locality. Germany.

Material examined. "L. minimus [rewritten]" "Mögeldorf [near Nuremberg], [hab.] Erlenwälddren" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.386. A female 3rd post-larval stadium 6·4 mm long with both 15th legs missing. This specimen belongs to one of the *lapidicola-borealis* group of species characterized by rather feeble posterior projections on T.11 and 13 only; it may very tentatively be referred to L. salicis Verhoeff, but the absence of the 15th legs and the immaturity of the specimen make definite identification impossible.

Remarks. The original description of L. minimus disagrees altogether with the above specimen which has 35 antennal articles (Koch gave 22), I + 4, 3, I ocelli (Koch gave I + 2, I), 2, 2, 2, 2 coxal pores (Koch gave I, I, I), and I, 3, 2, I ventral spines on the I4th leg (Koch gave I, I, I) on the I5th). The extent of this disagreement can hardly be accounted for by a careless description and the specimen must have been labelled in error by Koch himself or during some rearrangement of his Collection.

Latzel did not deal with this species but Meinert (1872) suggested L. minimus as a possible synonym of L. bucculentus (i.e. L. melanops). Koch's description, however, agrees better with the 1st post-larval stadium of L. agilis. But there can be no certainty about the identity of L. minimus and it should be rejected as a nomen dubium.

33. Lithobius immutabilis L. Koch

Lithobius immutabilis L. Koch, 1862: 62, fig. 24.

Type locality. Germany.

Material examined. "Lithobius immutabilis L. Koch, Syntypen, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 331. Two mutilated 1st post-larval stadia of L, dentatus.

"L. immutabilis [rewritten]" "Mögeldorf [near Nuremberg], [hab.] Erlengebüsch" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.322-325. A 4th larval stadium and four 1st post-larval stadia of *L. dentatus*, all more or less mutilated.

Type specimens. The original description of *L. immutabilis* was based on a number of specimens and all the above examples of *L. dentatus* seem to belong to the syntypical series.

REMARKS. Koch's description is clearly of a series of immature specimens and applies equally well to a number of species. Meinert (1872) and Latzel (1880: 74) suggested *L. immutabilis* as a possible synonym of *L. bucculentus* (i.e. *L. melanops*) and *L. glabratus* (— melanops) respectively. Only Haase (1880), who may well have seen the original material, suggested its true synonymy with *L. dentatus*.

34. Lithobius macilentus L. Koch

Lithobius macilentus L. Koch, 1862: 63, fig. 25.

TYPE LOCALITIES. Nuremberg; Franconian Jura; Bolzano, Italy.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius macilentus L. Koch, Syntypen?, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 332. A female of L. erythroce-phalus and two very mutilated specimens, a male and a female, probably 4th post-larval stadia of L. mutabilis.

"L. macilentus [rewritten]" "[hab.] Valzner Weiher, Gritz [Grütz, near Nüremberg]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.380-382. Two female 3rd post-larval stadia of *L. aulacopus* Latzel with 37 and 35 antennal articles respectively, together with one 1st post-larval stadium of *L. tricuspis* with 26 antennal articles, all three more or less mutilated.

"L. macilentus [rewritten]" "macilentus, Botzen [Bolzano]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.383 (part). A mutilated 1st post-larval stadium of L. tricuspis with antennae missing.

"L. macilentus [rewritten]" Happurg [Franconian Jura]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.383 (part). A badly mutilated fragment barely recognizable as belonging to a species of *Lithobius*.

Type specimens. The original description of *L. macilentus* was obviously based on two different species and there is no doubt that the above specimens from Grütz and Bolzano, and possibly also the fragment from Happurg, belong to the syntypical series. The same cannot be said of those in the Berlin Museum which bear no resemblance to Koch's description and must have been labelled by mistake. That part of Koch's description applying to the larger specimens with more than 32 antennal articles (females) together with his figure of the ocelli clearly refers to an immature example of *L. aulacopus*; the least defective of these, a 3rd post-larval stadium 8mm long with 37 antennal articles, answering exactly to Koch's description of the larger form and also to Latzel's (1880: 85) description of the "juvenis" of *L. aulacopus*, is here formally designated as the lectotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.380).

REMARKS. Meinert (1872) suggested *L. macilentus* as a possible synonym of *L. agilis*. Fedrizzi (1877) gave a rather diffuse account of the species which is more than mere repetition of Koch's description and, although probably composite, seems to include *L. aulacopus*. Latzel (1880: 80) recognised the inclusion of immature examples of two separate species by Koch in his original description of *L. macilentus*

and, probably following Meinert, proposed *L. agilis* as the senior synonym to apply only to the smaller specimens with fewer than 32 antennal articles which Koch regarded as males; he made no suggestion as to the identity of the larger females with more than 32 antennal articles and dismissed Koch's description and figure of the ocelli as unreliable, going on to describe *L. aulacopus* as a new species (Latzel, 1880: 84).

Meinert's and Latzel's failure to guess the identity of the smaller specimens is quite understandable but both of them overlooking Koch's very adequate description of the larger females is surprising. Haase (1880) followed Latzel's synonymy and all subsequent authors have accepted *L. macilentus* as a synonym of *L. agilis*.

Lohmander (1957 and in litt.) pointed out that L. aulacopus is a junior synonym of L. intrepidus Meinert, 1868. Most authors, however, continue to use the name aulacopus and the nomenclature of this species is unsatisfactory: it should now be known as L. macilentus L. Koch.

35. Lithobius alpinus L. Koch

Fig. 3

Lithobius alpinus L. Koch, 1862: 66, fig. 27.

TYPE LOCALITY. Seiseralpe, an alpine hut in the Italian Tyrol.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius alpinus in Seiseralpe leg. Gredler" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.12. A female of *L. lucifugus* L. Koch 15 mm long with oval coxal pores and most of the legs missing.

Type specimen. The original description of L, alpinus was based on a single defective female and agrees exactly with the above specimen of L, lucifugus which is undoubtedly the holotype.

Remarks. Koch used the shape of the coxal pores as a key character, separating those forms such as L. alpinus with oval coxal pores from species in which the pores are circular. Latzel (1880:122) realised that these pores may be either circular or oval in L. lucifugus and suggested L. alpinus as a possible synonym of this species. Borek (1967) argued that L. alpinus must be a species distinct from L. lucifugus owing to its small number of antennal articles (30), but this argument is not justified; the number of antennal articles is very variable in L. lucifugus as Borek himself pointed out.

The holotype shows a pair of small paramedian prosternal teeth not noted by Koch, in addition to the usual 2+2 (Fig. 3). These extra teeth are characteristic of L. lucifugus var. latzeli Verhoeff, 1935 which Verhoeff (1937) later raised to a subspecies; but the form and number of prosternal teeth in lucifugus are very variable, even in examples from the same locality, and there is no justification for regarding latzeli as a subspecies. Should it be thought necessary to give varietal status to specimens with these extra prosternal teeth, the name latzeli Verhoeff should be used, since the name alpinus must be rejected as a junior homonym of Lithobius alpinus Heer, 1845, which refers to an immature specimen of uncertain identity from the Swiss Alps.

36. Lithobius granulatus L. Koch

Lithobius granulatus L. Koch, 1862: 67, fig. 28.

Type locality. Unknown.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius granulatus L.K." "Patria?" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.258. A male of *L. lucifugus* 19 mm long with oval coxal pores and with both antennae and all the legs missing.

Type specimen. The original description of *L. granulatus* was based on a single male with antennae and legs missing and agrees exactly with the above specimen of *L. lucifugus* which is undoubtedly the holotype.

Remarks. As in the case of *L. alpinus* the oval coxal pores of *L. granulatus* were used by Koch as a key character. The only trace of an appendage borne by the holotype consists of the first and second articles of the right antenna, the second of which appears unusually elongate, and it was this slight aberration which led Koch to regard *L. granulatus* as a species distinct from *L. alpinus*. There is no previously proposed synonymy for this form and very little mention of it in the literature. Sseliwanoff's (1880) description of *L. granulatus* L. Koch refers to some species other than *L. lucifugus*. *L. granulatus* Meinert, 1872 is a homonym referring to a South American species.

37. Lithobius crassipes L. Koch

Lithobius crassipes. L. Koch, 1862: 71, fig. 31.

Type locality. Nuremberg district.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius crassipes L. Koch, Syntypen?, Franconia (Jura), leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 340. A male and two females.

"No. 272 Lithobius crassipes L.K. Types [rewritten]" "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.98-110. Four males and nine females ranging in the degree of their maturity from 3rd post-larval stadia to adults.

"crassipes, Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.259–261. A male and a female together with a female of *L. curtipes*.

Type specimens. The original description of *L. crassipes* was based on a number of specimens of both sexes. All the above specimens from the Franconian Jura, much of which lies in the Nuremberg district, seem to belong to the syntypical series, but those labelled "Nürnberg" were probably added to the Collection after the description had been written. A well-preserved adult female 8.5 mm long answering to Latzel's (1880: 128) description of *L. crassipes* is here formally designated as the lectotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.98).

Remarks. The single female of *L. curtipes* from Nuremberg does not show the characteristic arrangement of the ocelli very clearly, so it is not surprising that Koch should have included it among his specimens of *L. crassipes*.

38. Lithobius sulcatus L. Koch

Fig. 4

Lithobius sulcatus L. Koch, 1862: 73, fig. 32.

Type locality. Nuremberg.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. sulcatus [rewritten]" "Happurg [Franconian Jura]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.599 600. A male 2nd post-larval stadium of *L. agilis* and another immature male, probably a 2nd post larval stadium of *L. crassipes*.

"L. sulcatus [rewritten]" "Gritz [Grütz], [hab.] Wälddren bin. Glaishammer" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.601 607. Three specimens answering to Koch's description of L. sulcatus together with a female 3rd post-larval stadium of L. acruginosus and three other immature specimens, probably a 1st post-larval stadium and female 2nd post-larval stadium of L. curtipes and a 1st post-larval stadium of L. crassipes.

Type specimens. The original description of L, sulcatus was based on a number of immature specimens and all those from Grütz, near Nuremberg, some of which bear only a superficial resemblance to one another, seem to belong to the syntypical series. One of those answering to Koch's description is here formally designated as the lectotype $(B.M.(N.H.) \ 13.6.18.601)$.

REMARKS. Koch can have examined only three specimens at all carefully when writing his description of L. sulcatus; most of the others labelled "L. sulcatus" agree with this description in a few characters only and the example of L. agilis not at all. Latzel did not deal with the species, there is little reference to it in the literature, and it has never been redescribed although Attems (1909) referred it to the subgenus Monotarsobius. The following description is based on the lectotype and the other two specimens from Grütz with which it is conspecific.

Description. Length: 4.6 to 4.8 mm. Antennae: 1.4 to 1.5 mm long; of 21 or 22 articles. Occili: 3 or 4; a relatively small posterior occilius, a rather larger intermediate one and one or two much smaller anterior occili (Fig. 4). Prosternum: with 2 + 2 teeth and a pair of well-developed lateral spines. Tergites: slightly wrinkled; general shape as in species of Monotarsobius with posterior angles of T.9, 11 and 13 obtusely rounded. Coxal pores: 1, 1, 1, 1. Legs: tarsus and metatarsus fused on 1st to 11th; the 14th and 15th moderately thickened; 15th accessory apical claw present. Genitalia: undeveloped.

Spinulation:

		7	entral			Dorsal						
	С	t	P	F	T	С	t	P	F	T		
I	_	_			m		—	—		(a)		
2	-	—			m					(a)		
3	-	—			m				p	(a)		
4					m	-			Р	(a)		
5		_		m	m		—		a-p	а-р		
6	_			m	m			_	а-р	а-р		
7	_	_		m	m		-		а-р	а-р		

\sim							1							
S	ゎ	2	1	2	1	1	1	13	r	2	0	1	2	
W.	ν	r	,	e	٤	v	u	w	ν	u	v	,	ν	

		7	/entral			Dorsal						
	С	t	P	F	T	С	t	P	F	T		
8	_		—	m	m		_		а-р	а-р		
9	_	_	_	m	m	_			а-р	а-р		
10		_	_	m	m			(p)	p	_		
II		_		m	m		_	P	(p)			
12		_	m	m	m	_	_	(mp)	(p)			
13			m	m	-			-		_		
14	_		m	m	—		_			_		
15	_		m	m	_	_	_		_	-		

The letters enclosed in brackets indicate variable spines.

IDENTITY. These specimens are 1st post-larval stadia of a species of Monotarsobius which, in its adult form, would certainly have antennal articles considerably in excess of twenty. They would therefore answer to L. microps Meinert, 1868 (= L. duboscqui Brolemann), one of the few species of Monotarsobius with more than twenty antennal articles and a 15th accessory apical claw, were it not for the presence of such spines as DaF and DpF which are rarely found even in adults of L. microps (see also Jeekel, 1964). Verhoeff (1931, 1934, 1937) attached the name microps to one or more European species of Monotarsobius which differ from the true microbs in having a more profuse spinulation. In using the name in this way Verhoeff was following Meinert who, in his redescription of L. microps (Meinert, 1872), included at least one other species in addition to the true microps. But in spite of "L. microps" figuring in numerous keys and brief descriptions it seems never to have been properly described except by Brolemann (1930), and there is some doubt as to whether Brolemann was describing the same species as Verhoeff. On the other hand a bewildering number of subspecies of "microps" have been described by Verhoeff and other authors from various parts of Europe, some in considerable detail. Although the specimens of L. sulcatus may possibly be examples of L. microps with unusual spinulation, they are more likely to be identical with the misnamed "L. microps" of Verhoeff or one of its subspecies. But a full description of the species must await discovery of adults in the neighbourhood of Nuremberg.

39. Lithobius aeruginosus L. Koch

Lithobius aeruginosus L. Koch, 1862: 74, fig. 33.

Type locality. Nuremberg district.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius aeroginosus L.K." "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.1. A male 4th post-larval stadium 5.8 mm long.

"Lithobius aeruginosus L.K." B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.2. A male 4th post-larval stadium of *L. curtipes* 7 mm long.

Type specimens. The original description of *L. aeruginosus* was based on at least two males and the above two specimens seem to be the syntypes. The one labelled "fränk. Jura" answers more closely to this description and also agrees with Latzel's (1880: 126) description of *L. aeruginosus*; it is here formally designated as the lectotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.1).

Remarks. Although both the above specimens have three ventral spines on the 15th prefemur (Koch gave one) they answer fairly well to Koch's description in other respects. The male of L curtipes, however, has the characteristic tibial projection feebly but quite distinctly developed on the 15th leg, a second ventral spine (VaF) on the 15th femur, and the ocelli, though not arranged as in adults of L curtipes, are in a somewhat irregular line and not in a precisely straight line as in the lectotype: Koch evidently overlooked all these details and seems to have depended more on the lectotype for his description.

The 15th legs of the lectotype are unusually long for this species (two-fifths of the body-length), a feature noted by Koch and attributed by Latzel (1880:128) to immaturity. But Koch regarded it as characteristic of the species and this may have led him to identify the other examples of *L. aeruginosus* in the Collection,

all of which have relatively short legs, as L. curtipes or L. sulcatus.

40. Lithobius mutabilis L. Koch

Lithobius variegatus: C. L. Koch, 1844: 21, fig. 21. 1863, 2: 21. fig. 144a & b (non Leach 1814)

Lithobius mutabilis L. Koch, 1862: 75, fig. 34.

Type locality. Germany.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius mutabilis L. Koch, Syntypen?, Nürnberg, leg. L. Koch [rewritten]" Zool. Mus. Berlin: Kat. Nr. 329. Four males and four females together with a female of L. muticus, all more or less mutilated.

"L. mutabilis [rewritten]" "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.435–458. Five males and nine females together with five males and three females of *L. pelidnus*

and a male and female of L. muticus.

"mutabilis, fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.459–460. Two males of L erythrocephalus.

"mutabilis, Nürnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.461–520 (part). Twenty-four males (including 3rd and 4th post-larval stadia) and twenty-three females together with seven males and five females of L. pelidnus and an adult male, a male 3rd post-larval stadium and eight females of L. muticus.

"L. mutabilis [rewritten]" "Nürnberg—Einlegend ♀ mit Ei" B.M.(M.H.) Reg. no.

13.6.18.461-520 (part). A single female.

"L. mutabilis [rewritten]" "München" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.521–526. A female 4th post-larval stadium of L. mutabilis, a male and a female of L. muticus, two females of L. lapidicola Meinert (sensu Jeekel, 1964 non Latzel, 1880), and two rather defective females, probably belonging to L. subtilis Latzel.

"mutabilis, Tirol" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.527. A single male.

"L. mutabilis [rewritten]" "Böhmen [Bohemia]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18. 528–531. Two males and two females.

"mutabilis, Franzensbad [Frantiskovy Lazne, Czechoslovakia]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.632. A single male.

Type specimens. The original description of L. mutabilis was based on two distinct species, L. mutabilis as described by Latzel (1880:97) and L. pelidnus

Haase, 1880. The specimens in the Berlin Museum and those in the British Museum (N.H.) from the Franconian Jura (13.18.6.435–458) all seem to belong to the syntypical series and a well-preserved male 10 mm long agreeing with Latzel's description of *L. mutabilis* is here formally designated as the lectotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.435).

REMARKS. L. Koch intended his description of L. mutabilis to apply to L. variegatus Leach as described by C. L. Koch in 1844 and he renamed it because he realised that Leach's (1814) description referred to an altogether different species. Although one cannot say whether C. L. Koch had before him examples of the species now recognized as L. mutabilis, those of L. pelidnus, or a mixture of the two when he wrote his description of L. variegatus, and his illustration of the latter (C. L. Koch, 1863: fig. 144) could apply to either species, the obvious course is to select a specimen of the former as lectotype in order to preserve current nomenclature.

Females of *L. mutabilis* and *L. pelidnus* are very difficult to distinguish from one another and it has already been shown how L. Koch came to confuse them with those of *L. muticus* (see p. 117), so most of his misdeterminations are easily explained: but the two males of *L. erythrocephalus* from the Franconian Jura and the two unexpected species from Munich bear only a superficial resemblance to *L. mutabilis*

and cannot have been examined very carefully.

Folkmanova (1949) pointed out that many of the infraspecific forms of L. mutabilis enumerated and keyed by Verhoeff (1935) are based on unstable characters and are therefore without validity. Of Koch's specimens, the single male from the Tyrol is quite without posterior projections on T. 11 and 13 and agrees in other respects with Verhoeff's definition of L. mutabilis mutabilis; but all his other specimens including the lectotype have at least traces of posterior projections on T.11 and small but quite distinct projections on T.13, and would therefore run to L. mutabilis var. carpathicus in Verhoeff's key.

Although L. mutabilis and L. pelidnus are both fairly adequately described by Latzel (1880), the best descriptions of these two species, which are accompanied by illustrations of the male 15th legs upon which their differentiation largely depends,

are those of Matic (1966).

41. Lithobius cinnamomeus L. Koch

Lithobius cinnamomeus L. Koch, 1862: 77, fig. 35.

Type Locality. Germany.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius cinnamomeus L.K." "Happurg [Franconian Jura]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.60–63. Two males and two females, all either 4th post-larval stadia or small adults of L. muticus.

Type specimens. The original description of L. cinnamomeus was based on a number of specimens of both sexes and all the above examples of L. muticus definitely belong to the syntypical series.

Remarks. As well as describing this form as being smaller, paler, and with fewer antennal articles and fewer ocelli than *L. muticus*, Koch noted the incurved internal pair of spurs on the female gonopods which he contrasted with the straight spurs

which he believed, mistakenly as we have seen, to occur in *L. muticus* (see p. 117). Although he made no mention of the swelling on the male 14th tibia in his description, he did confirm its presence in *L. cinnamomeus* in private correspondence with Latzel (Latzel, 1880: 119). Latzel proposed *L. cinnamomeus* as a possible synonym of *L. muticus* but he remarked on the large head of the latter compared with the relatively small head of the former, and suggested that the two might possibly prove to be distinct species. But it is only in the largest males of *L. muticus* that the shape of the cephalic shield is really distinctive and there is no doubt that *L. cinnamomeus* is a synonym of *L. muticus*.

42. Lithobius lucifugus L. Koch

Fig. 5

Lithobius lucifugus L. Koch, 1862: 82, fig. 38.

Type locality. Bolzano, Italy.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. lucifugus [rewritten]" "Botzen [Bolzano]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.369. A single male 15 mm long with circular coxal pores.

"L. lucifugus [rewritten]" "Ratzes [Rasa, Italy], [leg.] Milde" B.M.(N.H.) Reg.

no. 13.6.18.370. A female of L. pelidnus.

"lucifugus?, Nurnberg" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.371. A male 3rd post-larval stadium of *L. mutabilis*,

"L. lucifugus? cinnamomeus? Tirol [rewritten]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.372. Two males and three females of *L. lucifugus*.

Type specimen. The original description of L, lucifugus was based on a single male and agrees exactly with the above male from Bolzano which is undoubtedly the holotype.

Remarks. The circular coxal pores of the holotype explain why L. lucifugus is so far removed, in Koch's system, from L. alpinus and L. granulatus with which it is conspecific (see p. 130). The prosternum of the holotype (Fig. 5) with 2+2 teeth establishes this number of teeth as typical, but the appearance of 2+3 prosternal teeth on one of the specimens from the Tyrol is evidence of their variability in L. lucifugus. Koch's inclusion of a female of L. pelidnus under L. lucifugus is a further example of the mistakes he made in placing females of similar species.

L. lucifugus was fully described by Latzel (1880: 120) and Brolemann (1930).

43. Lithobius lubricus L. Koch

Lithobius lubricus L. Koch, 1862: 86, fig. 41.

Type locality. Nuremberg district.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. lubricus [rewritten]" "fränk. Jura" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.373-374. Fhree post-larval stadia of *L. calcaratus*, one belonging to the 1st, a male to the 2nd and a female to the 3rd.

"L. lubricus [rewritten]" "Dietenhofen [Franconian Jura]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no.

13.6.18.375. A male 3rd post-larval stadium of L. calcaratus.

"L. lubricus [rewritten]" "Gritz [Grütz, near Nuremberg], [hab.] Valzn. Weiher, Glaishammer" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.376–379. Four post-larval stadia of L. calcaratus, one belonging to the 1st, and two males and a female to the 3rd.

Type specimens. The original description of L. lubricus was based on a number of specimens of both sexes. All the above examples of L. calcaratus come from the neighbourhood of Nuremberg and seem to belong to the syntypical series.

REMARKS. Koch's failure to identify these specimens as *L. calcaratus* is easily understood, as the characteristic femoral process on the male 15th leg does not become obvious during the development of this species until the 4th post-larval stadium (see p. 109). Synonymy of *L. lubricus* with *L. calcaratus* was first proposed by Stuxberg (1871) and has never been disputed.

44. Lithobius carinatus L. Koch

Fig. 6

Lithobius carinatus L. Koch, 1862: 87, fig. 42.

Type locality. Greece.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "Lithobius carinatus L.K." "Griechenland" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.56-58. Three imperfectly cleared males with the antennae and all the legs missing.

"Lithobius carinatus L.K." "Patria?" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.59. A single

well-preserved male.

Type specimens. The original description of *L. carinatus* was based on a number of males. The above specimens from Greece seem to constitute the syntypical series and must have been examined by Koch before they lost their appendages. One of them, a male 24 mm long, is here formally designated as the lectotype (B.M.(N.H.) 13.6.18.56).

REMARKS. All the above specimens as well as Koch's description are clearly referable to the common Greek species known as *L. macrops* Karsch, 1888. Although this description is quite adequate it has been overlooked by most authors: only Attems (1926) has recognized *L. carinatus* as the correct name for *L. macrops*.

The striking difference between the relatively dense setae on the 15th prefemur and femur, and the very much sparser setae on the corresponding tibia, tarsus and metatarsus which Koch described, cannot be confirmed in the type specimens owing to their mutilation, but is present in the male from an unknown locality. However, three males and a female of this species (B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 89.3.29.36–38) from Athens, the type locality of *L. macrops*, are variable in respect of this character: one male and the female are similar to Koch's specimens but with more setae at the base of the 15th tibia, whereas the other two males have setae of much the same density on all the articles of the 15th legs: none of these specimens from Athens shows the

sharp difference between the setae of the femur and tibia which is so striking in Koch's specimen. It would, in fact, be quite reasonable to regard *L. carinatus* and *L. macrops* as subspecifically distinct if we knew the exact localities in Greece attaching to *L. carinatus* and if it were not for other specimens of the species (B.M.(N.H.) Reg. nos. 1905.8.24.77 and 03.8.25.23–25) from unknown localities in Greece showing various degrees of differentiation between the more setose proximal and the almost glabrous distal articles of the 15th legs. Further, Matic figured a specimen of *L. macrops* from Athens with a glabrous 15th metatarsus (Matic *et al.*, 1968: fig. 1B). *L. carinatus* should, therefore be regarded as the senior synonym of *L. macrops*.

Although this is an abundant and distinctive species the only really full account in the literature is that of Matic (Matic et al., 1968), and because Koch's specimens differ in detail from that account they are described below. The characters of the

appendages are taken from the specimens from an unknown locality.

DESCRIPTION. Size: 20 to 25 mm long and about 2.5 mm broad at T.10. Colour: dull yellow. Head: broader than long. Antennae: one-third of bodylength; of 32 irregular articles, some broader than long, others slightly elongate, appearing only very sparsely setose although many of the setae may have been lost. Ocelli: a large posterior ocellus, an intermediate ocellus of much the same size and two much smaller anterior ocelli, exactly as figured by Matic (Matic et al., 1968; fig. 1E); organ of Tömösvary rather smaller than smallest ocellus. Prosternum: with 2 + 2 teeth and a pair of lateral spines; lateral to the lateral spine the anterior border forms a narrow but distinct shoulder, sometimes amounting to a rounded node (Fig. 6). Tergites: the posterior angles of the large tergites all rounded, those of T.9 obtuse, those of T.11 right-angled and those of T.13 very slightly produced; T.14 relatively broad; intermediate tergite (T.16) truncate. Sternites: S.5 to S.15 beset with minute setae; many of these setae have been lost but their insertions are visible. Coxal pores: 4, 3, 3, 3; circular; the medial pore on the 12th coxa is much smaller than the others and may be hidden by the adjacent sternite. Legs: the 14th and 15th short and stout, less than one-third of body-length; 15th prefemur and femur densely setose; the three distal articles of the 15th leg almost glabrous; setae of the 14th leg arranged in much the same way as on the 15th, but their differentiation is less marked; two ventral rows of stout seriate setae on the 1st to 13th metatarsi, extending onto part of the adjacent tarsus in some legs; 15th accessory apical claw about two-fifths of length of the principal claw which is short and stout. Gonopods: of a single article.

Spinulation:

			Ventral				Dors	al		
	С	t	P	F	T	С	t	P	F	T
14		m	amp	amp	am	_		mp	p	p
15		m	amp	am		_		p	p	_

No coxolateral spines. All spines rather short and stout. Koch recorded a third ventral spine on the 15th femur and a single ventral spine on the 15th tibia.

45. Lithobius pubescens L. Koch

Lithobius pubescens L. Koch, 1867: 898.

Type locality. Tinos, Aegean Archipelago.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. pubescens [rewritten]" "Tinos Erber" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.580. A male of L. carinatus 18 mm long.

"L. pubescens [rewritten]" "Syra Erber" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.581-582.

A male and a female of L. carinatus 16 mm and 12 mm long respectively.

"L. pubescens [rewritten]" "Smyrna Erber" "181 [printed]" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.583-585. A male and two females of L. carinatus 16 to 19 mm long.

Type specimen. The original description of L, pubescens was based on a male and a female. The latter has not been found but the above male of L, carinatus from Tinos agrees exactly with the description and is here formally designated as the lectotype.

Remarks. Although Koch made no comparsion between L. pubescens and L. carinatus, his brief description of the former is quite clear and Karsch (1888) remarked on the similarity between L. pubescens and L. macrops (= carinatus). The principal features which seem to have led Koch to describe L. pubescens as a distinct species are, as its name implies, the strongly setose antennae and 15th legs and the numerous minute setae on the posterior sternites of the male. The distal articles of the legs, particularly those of the 14th and 15th, of the lectotype and the specimens from Syria and Smyrna are certainly more densely setose than those of the Greek specimens of L. carinatus, but there is little true difference between the two groups of specimens in the setation of the antennae and the extent and density of the sternal setae. Most of these setae have been lost in Koch's specimens of L. carinatus and may not have been present even when he examined them originally. There would, in fact, be little reason for regarding pubescens as distinct from carinatus were it not for a marked difference in size.

Of the published figures for the lengths of Greek specimens, Karsch (1888) gave 23 mm, Verhoeff (1899) gave 20.5 to 21.5 mm and Matic (Matic et al., 1968) gave 22 to 30 mm; Koch's specimens of L. carinatus are 20 to 25 mm and the other adult Greek specimens in the British Museum (N.H.) already referred to are 21 to 25 mm long; two smaller females (B.M.(N.H.) 03.8.25.24.and 25) from Greece are 13 mm and 14 mm long but they are obviously immature with 3, 3/2, 2, 2 coxal pores and only 2+2 very unequal spurs on the gonopods. Comparable figures for the lengths of specimens from Asia Minor and the Levant are that of Porat (1894) for a Syrian specimen (15 mm) and those of Verhoeff (1925, 1941, 1943) for specimens from Jaffa (13 to 14 mm), the Taurus Mountains (15 mm) and Alexandretta (19 mm); and of Koch's specimens of L. pubescens, the lengths of which have already been given, the female from Syria only 12 mm long seems to be mature with 4, 3, 3, 3 coxal pores and fully developed gonopods with 3+3 spurs.

There seems, therefore, to be some justification for retaining the name pubescens for a subspecies of L. carinatus occurring in the Aegean Archipelago, Asia Minor and the Levant and differing from the nominate subspecies in being less than 20 mm long

with the tarsi and metatarsi of the legs, particularly those of the 14th and 15th, more strongly setose.

46. Lithobius litoralis L. Koch

Lithobius litoralis L. Koch, 1867: 899.

Type locality. Tinos, Aegean Archipelago.

Type specimen. The holotype. B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.368.

Remarks. This species has been discussed in a previous publication (Eason, 1970a) in which it was shown to be a valid species of *Eupolybothrus* Verhoeff and not a synonym of *E. fasciatus* (Newport) as was previously supposed.

47. Lithobius nigripalpis L. Koch

Lithobius nigripalpis L. Koch, 1867: 899.

Type locality. Tinos, Aegean Archipelago.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. "L. nigripalpis [rewritten]" "Tinos Erber" B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 13.6.18.575. A single male.

Type specimen. The original description of *L. nigripalpis* was based on a single male and agrees fairly well with the above specimen which is undoubtedly the holotype.

Remarks. There has been uncertainty about the identity of this species ever since Verhoeff (1899) redescribed it as a subspecies of L. forficatus with either a simple apical claw on the 15th leg or with only a minute accessory claw. In subsequent keys and brief accounts (Verhoeff, 1925, 1937 etc.) the 15th legs of L. nigripalpis have always been described as having a simple claw. In fact, not only the holotype but also three specimens (a male and two females) from the Verhoeff Collection in the British Museum (N.H.) labelled "Lithobius forficatus nigripalpis Koch, Greece" (Reg. no. 03.8.25.64-66) all have small but distinct 15th accessory apical claws, and there is no doubt that all four specimens belong to L. bulgaricus Verhoeff, 1925, which thus becomes a junior synonym of L. nigripalpis. It may be that when he wrote his account of bulgaricus, Verhoeff had already sold his material belonging to nigripalpis to various museums and had no specimens available for re-examination; otherwise he would hardly have described L. bulgaricus as distinct.

Having decided that *L. nigripalpis* is identical with *L. bulgaricus* it remains to arrive at its taxonomic status. It clearly belongs to the *piceus-peregrinus* group of species and, contrary to Verhoeff's mistaken conception of the form as having close affinity with *L. forficatus*, most authors have regarded it as no more than a variety or even a synonym of one of the species of this group. Latzel (1880:65) included *L. nigripalpis* among the doubtful synonyms of *L. piceus*; Attems (1905) regarded *L. nigripalpis* and *L. peregrinus* as varieties of the same species; and Muralwitsch (1926) believed *L. forficatus nigripalpis* of Verhoeff to be identical with *L. viriatus* Sseliwanoff, 1880, another member of the *piceus-peregrinus* group.

Although Matic (1964) proposed nigripalpis as a variety of L. bulgaricus, he has recently (Matic, 1966; Matic & Darabantu, 1968) listed L. nigripalpis among the synonyms of L. piceus and described L. bulgaricus separately.

L. bulgaricus was originally described as a subspecies of L. piceus (Verhoeff, 1925) but Matic (1966) found these two forms to be sympatric in parts of Rumania so they can hardly belong to the same species. L. nigripalpis is, in fact, closer to L. peregrinus than to L. piceus but the absence of a prosternal diastema and the absence of denticles on the claw of the female gonopod (both of which are present in L. peregrinus) are sufficient grounds for regarding it as a true species.

The original record from Tinos, Verhoeff's (1899) records from the island of Aegina in the Saronic Gulf and the adjacent mainland of Attica (probably based partly on the specimens B.M.(N.H.) Reg. no. 03.8.25.64-66), Verhoeff's (1925) original record of L. bulgaricus from Ruschuk on the Danube, and the distribution Matic (1966) gave for L. bulgaricus show this species to be widespread in the eastern and southern Balkans as well as in the Aegean Archipelago. Records of L. piceus olympicus Verhoeff from the south Marmoran coast (Verhoeff, 1944), and of L. politicus Chamberlin from southwest Anatolia (Chamberlin, 1952), both probably refer to L. nigripalpis and suggest that the species is also widespread in Asia Minor. Attem's (1905) description of L. peregrinus from Erdschias-Dagh (Asia Minor) and Verhoeff's (1944) description of what he regarded as the true L. nigripalpis from Ankara must both have been based on specimens of nigripalpis in which the 15th accessory apical claw was either absent or so small as to be overlooked.

The only really full account of this species in the literature is that of Matic (1966) under *L. bulgaricus*. Because the holotype appears to be a pseudomaturus and therefore different in detail from Matic's account it is described below.

Description. Length: 19 mm. Colour: dark brown. Antennae: 8 mm long; of 48 articles. Ocelli: 1 + 4, 3, 2. Prosternum: with 4 + 4 teeth and the lateral spines lateral to the external teeth. Tergites: the posterior angles of T.8 and 10 rounded, those of T.12 blunt, those of T.14 angulated; posterior angles of T.9, 11 and 13 with prominent projections, those of T.13 being very long and sharp; posterior border of intermediate tergite strongly emarginate; the shape of the tergites is in marked contrast to that in L. piceus in which the posterior angles of T.10, 12 and 14 are sharp and slightly projecting. Coxal pores: 5, 5, 5, 4; circular. 15th legs: 7 mm long; stout; a feeble external sulcus on prefemur, femur and tibia; accessory apical claw about a quarter the length of principal claw.

Spinulation:

			Ventra	al				Dors	al	
	С	t	P	F	T	С	t	P	\mathbf{F}	T
1			$_{ m mp}$	amp	am			mp	а-р	a
2	-		$_{ m mp}$	amp	am	_		amp	а-р	а-р
3	_		mp	amp	am	_	_	amp	а-р	а-р
4		_	$^{\mathrm{mp}}$	amp	am	_	_	amp	а-р	а-р
5	_		$_{ m mp}$	amp	am	_		amp	а-р	а-р
6	_	_	$_{ m mp}$	amp	am			amp	а-р	а-р
7	_	_	amp	amp	am	-	termina.	amp	а-р	а-р

Si	Ь	i	n	11	Z	a	ŧ	i	0	12	
~ 1	~	v	"	P. P.	v	v	٠	ν	v	"	

•		7	Ventral					Dorsal		
	С	t	P	F	T	С	t	P	F	T
8	_	_	amp	amp	am		_	amp	а-р	а-р
9		_	amp	amp	am		_	amp	а-р	а-р
IO	_	_	amp	amp	am	a	_	amp	а-р	а-р
II	_	_	amp	amp	am	a	—	amp	а-р	а-р
12	_	_	amp	amp	am	a	_	amp	а-р	а-р
13	a	m	amp	amp	am	a	_	amp	p	а-р
14	a	m	amp	amp	am	a		amp	p	p
15	a	m	amp	amp	a	a	_	amp	p	

15 VaC is duplicated on the right leg.

48. Lithobius asperatus L. Koch

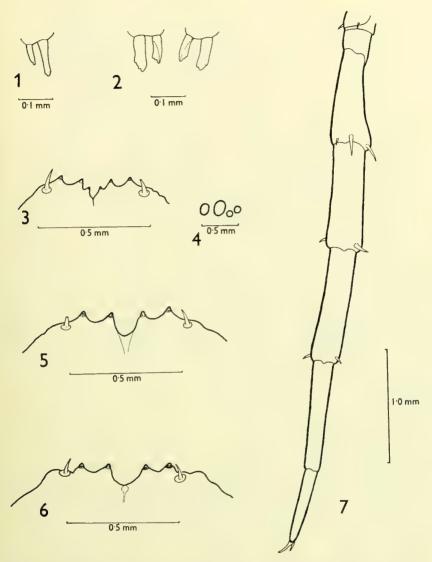
Lithobius asperatus L. Koch, 1878: 788.

Type locality. Japan.

Remarks. L. asperatus was originally described from specimens belonging to a collection made by Dr. Albrecht von Roretz which has not been traced. There is, however, no doubt as to the identity of this species which is very common in Japan and much of eastern Asia and whose life-history has been studied in as much detail as that of any species of Lithobiidae (Murakami, 1958).

L. asperatus has been redescribed by Haase (1887) from the Phillipines and by Attems (1909) from Japan. Chamberlin (1920) considered that Attem's description, which gave 13 ocelli (Koch gave 23, Haase gave 19 to 23) and a ventral spine on the 15th tibia (neither Koch nor Haase gave this spine), applied to another species with fewer occili and more spines which he named Bothropolys spinosior on the basis of Attem's description. But specimens in the British Museum (N.H.) from Japan (Reg no. 1937,9,9,55) and southeast Korea (Reg. no. 93,3,27.6) have 24 and 22 ocelli respectively and in both, the spinulation of the 14th and 15th legs is exactly as described by Attems: there is therefore no correlation between the number of ocelli and the spinulation, and B. spinosior is not a valid species. Another of Attem's descriptions of L. asperatus, based on a single male from the Hawaiian Islands (Attems, 1903), was questioned by Chamberlin (1920) with more justification: this Hawaiian specimen had very deficient spinulation compared with the typical L. asperatus and Attems himself had already referred it to a separate species, Bothropolys maluhianus (Attems 1914): but Chamberlin, who cannot have read Attem's later paper, renamed it B. oahuanus.

L. asperatus belongs to the genus Bothropolys Wood as emended by Chamberlin (1925a) who divided the genus into Bothropolys s.str. and Poropolys, the former with and the latter without posterior projections on T.6 and 7. In B. asperatus the projections on T.6 are very feeble and were not even mentioned by Koch in his original description, while those on T.7, though distinct in some specimens, are so feeble in the example from Japan in the British Museum (N.H.) that one cannot say to which of Chamberlin's subgenera it belongs: Poropolys should therefore be disregarded.



Figs 1-7. Fig. 1. L. agilis, spurs of left gonopod of neotype, ventral. Fig. 2. L. erythrocephalus, spurs of gonopods of neotype, ventral. Fig. 3. L. alpinus, dental margin of prosternum of holotype, ventral. Fig. 4. L. sulcatus, ocelli of lectotype. Fig. 5. L. lucifugus, dental margin of prosternum of holotype, ventral. Fig. 6. L. carinatus, dental margin of prosternum of lectotype, ventral. Fig. 7. L. piceus, left 15th leg of female (Franconian Jura), dorsal.

TABLE I

Nominal species	Date	Type locality as published	Designate type material	Validity and status	Generic classification
aeruginosus L.K.	1862	Nuremberg district	Lectotype (Franconian Jura)	valid	Lithobius (Monotarsobius)
agilis C.L.K.	1847	Bavaria	Neotype (Mögeldorf [Nuremberg])	valid	Lithobius s. str.
alpinus L.K.	1862	Seiseralpe [Italian Tyrol]	Holotype	non L. alpinus Heer, 1845 = L. lucifugus var, latzeli Verhoeff, 1935, Syn. nov.	
asperatus L.K.	1878	Japan	Augman	valid	Bothropolys
bucculentus L.K.	1862	Munich district	1	= L. tricuspis Memert, 1872. Syn. nov. (see p. 126)	
calcaratus C.L.K.	1844	Germany	Neotype (Nuremberg)	valid	Lithobius s. str.
carinatus L.K.	1862	Greece	Lectotype	valid = L. macrops Karsch, 1888	Lithobius s. str.
cinnamomeus L.K.	1862	Germany	Syntypes (Happurg [Franconian Jura])	= L. muticus C. L. Koch, 1847	
communis C.L.K.	1844	Germany		= L. mutabilis L. Koch, 1862 (see p. 110)	
coriaceus L.K.	1862	Сетмапу	Syntypes (Franconian Jura)	= L. forficatus (Linn. 1758)	
crassipes L.K.	1862	Nuremberg district	Lectotype (Franconian Jura)	valid	Lithobius (Monotarsobius)
curtipes C.L.K.	1847	1847 Bavaria	Neotype (Nuremberg)	valid = L. (Monotarobsius) baloghi Loksa, 1947. Syn. nov.	Lithobius (Monotarsobius)
dentatus C.L.K.	1844	Germany	Neotype (Nuremberg district)	valid	Luthobius s. str.
erythrocephalus C.L.K.	1847	Bavaria	Neotype (Happurg [Franconian Jura])	valid	Lithobius s. str.
festivus L.K.	1862	1862 Garmisch [Bavaria]	Syntype	= Eupolybothrus grossipes (C. L. Koch, 1847)	

Nominal species	Date	Type locality as published	Designate type material	Validity and status	Generic classification
forficatus var.	1862	Bavarian Alps	Holotype	=L. forficatus	
fossor L.K.	1862	Grütz (near Nuremberg); Ehrenbürg [Franconian Jura]	Syntypes	= L. piceus L. Koch, 1862	
glabratus C.L.K.	1847	Bavaria		= L. melanops Newport, 1845	
granulatus L.K.	1862	Unknown	Holotype	= L. $lucifugus$ L. Koch, 1862. Syn. nov.	
grossipes C.L.K.	1847	Triest	Holotype (Idrija [Yougoslavia])	valid	Eupolybothrus s. str.
hortensis L.K.	1862	Nuremberg; Landstuhl (Rhineland Palinate)	Syntypes	=L. forficatus	
immutabilis L.K.	1862	Germany	Syntypes (Nuremberg)	= L. dentatus C. L. Koch, 1844	
impressus C.L.K.	1841	Algerian coast		valid	Eupolybothrus (Allopolybothrus)
inermis L.K.	1856	Malaga [Spain]		valid	Lithobius s. str.
litoralis L.K.	1867	Tinos [Aegean Archipelago]	Holotype	valid	Eupolybothrus s. str.
lubricus L.K.	1862	Nuremberg district	Syntypes	= L, calcaratus C, L, Koch 1844	
lucifugus L.K.	1862	Bolzano [Italy]	Holotype	valid	Lithobius s. str.
macilentus L.K.	1862	Nuremberg; Franconian Jura; Bolzano [Italy]	Lectotype (Grütz [Nuremberg])	valid $= L$. aulacopus Latzel, 1880 Syn. nov.	Lithobius s. str.
melanocephalus C.L.K.	1862	Ehrenbürg (Franconian Jura)	Syntypes	= L. melanops	
minimus L.K.	1862	Germany		nomen dubium	
minutus C.L.K.	1847	Bavaria		= L. mutabilis (see p. 118)	
montanus C.L.K.	1847	South Tyrol		= Eupolybothrus grossipes	
mordax L.K.	1862	New Orleans [U.S.A.]	1	valid	Neolithobius

		l			
Nominal species	Date	Type locality as published	Designate type material	Validity and status	Generic classification
muscorum L.K.	1862	Germany	Holotype	= L. forficatus	
mutabilis L.K.	1862	Germany	Lectotype (Franconian Jura)	valid	Lithobius s. str.
muticus C.L.K.	1847	Bavaria	Neotype (Franconian Jura)	valid	Lithobius s. str.
nigripalpis L.K.	1867	Tinos [Aegean Archipelago]	Holotype	valid $= L. \text{ piceus bulgaricus}$ Verhoeff, 1925. Syn. nov.	Lithobius s. str.
parisiensis L.K.	1862	Paris		= L. forficatus	
piceus L.K.	1862	Garmisch [Bavaria]		valid	Lithobius s. str.
pubescens L.K.	1867	Tinos [Aegean Archipelago]	Lectotype	subspecies of L. carinatus L. Koch, 1862. Comb. nov.	
punctulatus C.L.K.	1847	Triest		nomen dubium	
sordidus L.K.	1862	Munich district		= L. piceus	
sulcatus L.K.	1862	Nuremberg	Lectotype (Grütz [Nuremberg])	valid $= L. microps: Verhoeff, 1931?$ (non Meinert, 1868)	Lithobius (Monotarsobius)
transmarinus L.K.	1862	New Orleans [U.S.A.]		valid	Neolithobius
trilineatus L.K.	1862	Bahia [Brazil]	Syntype	= L. forficatus	
varius C.L.K.	1847	Bavaria		nomen dubium	
velox L.K.	1862	Landstuhl (Rhineland Palinate); Syntypes Franconia; Vienna district	Syntypes	= L. melanops	
venator L.K.	1862	Ehrenbürg (Franconian Jura)	Holotype	= L. melanops	

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CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE LIFE-HISTORIES AND DEVELOPMENT OF CUCULLANUS MINUTUS RUDOLPHI, 1819 AND C. HETEROCHROUS RUDOLPHI, 1802 (NEMATODA: ASCARIDIDA)

D. I. GIBSON

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TRUSTEES OF
THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE LIFE-HISTORIES AND DEVELOPMENT OF CUCULLANUS MINUTUS RUDOLPHI, 1819 AND C. HETEROCHROUS RUDOLPHI, 1802 (NEMATODA: ASCARIDIDA)

By D. I. GIBSON

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1. SYNOPSIS

The larval stages of the nematodes Cucullanus minutus and C. heterochrous from the flounder Platichthys flesus (L.) are described, those of C. heterochrous have not been previously recorded. Information on the incidence of infestation of flounders with these larvae throughout the year is used to make a significant contribution to our knowledge of the life-histories of these two species. The work also indicates that C. minutus and C. heterochrous are normally geographically isolated from each other, and that this is associated with temperature and their life-histories.

2. INTRODUCTION

Cucullanus minutus and C. heterochrous were two of the commonest nematodes found in the flounder Platichthys flesus (L). from the estuary of the River Ythan, Aberdeenshire and from the sea off Aberdeen during the course of a survey of its helminth parasites. From previous work on the species of this genus, it appeared that the most obvious topics worthy of investigation were their life-histories and,

especially in the case of *C. heterochrous*, the morphology of the larval stages. Janiszewska (1939) has described the third- and fourth-stage larvae of *C. minutus*, but did not determine any of this parasite's earlier life-history. With regard to *C. heterochrous*, no information on its life-history is available in the literature, and its larval stages do not appear to have been recorded previously. This is surprising considering how common and widespread these species are in flatfish.

A study of the literature revealed that there is little information on the lifehistories of many members of the genus Cucullanus, and that no life-history has been satisfactorily explained throughout the complete cycle. The only explanation of a complete life-cycle is that of Vessichelli (1910) for C. stelmioides (Vessichelli, 1010). Vessichelli states that the eggs are laid and hatch in the gut-lumen of the lamprey Petromyzon planeri (Bloch). The larvae penetrate the gut-wall, encyst and remain there during the period of gut reduction before spawning. After spawning the lampreys perish, and lamprey larvae become infested by feeding upon the dead bodies of the adult lampreys. According to Shulman (1957) Vessichelli's work has not been confirmed and requires further investigation. Janiszewska (1939) showed that some of the larval stages of C. minutus were present in the gut-wall of flounders and that the final stage larvae migrated into the gut-lumen, but she could not ascertain how these larval stages came to be present in the gut-wall. Le-Van-Hoa & Pham-Ngoc-Khue (1967), when describing C. chabaudi, showed in the laboratory that the eggs of this species embryonate in two days, the first moult occurs inside the egg after four days and the second-stage larvae hatched from the eggs after five to six days. These authors then stated that the second-stage larvae continue to grow inside the swim-bladder of a fish (Pangasius pangasius Hamilton Buchanan), the second moult occurs in the liver, and the third and fourth larval stages are present in the gall-bladder and bile-duct. The fourth-stage larvae then migrate along the bile-duct to the intestine where the adult nematodes are found. These authors did not state how the second-stage infested the fish, and did not describe the larval stages. Finally, preliminary comments upon the life-histories of C. minutus and C. heterochrous, which are enlarged upon below, were made by MacKenzie & Gibson (1970).

3. METHODS

The mean incidence of infestation of the adult and larval stages of these two nematodes were obtained during a survey of the helminth parasites of the flounder. Seven hundred and forty flounders from the estuary of the River Ythan, Aberdeenshire (termed 'estuarine flounders') and one hundred and seventy flounders from the sea off Aberdeen (termed 'marine flounders') were examined. These results are represented in fig. 3. Most of the larvae were removed from the mucosa and sub-mucosa of the gut-wall by scraping, and the remainder deep in the sub-mucosa were found by examining sections of squashed gut-wall with transmitted light. The difference between mature and immature adult nematodes was taken to be, in the case of the females, the presence or absence of eggs, and, in the case of

the males, the presence of clearly defined spicules when viewed under a low powered (× 10) microscope; but in most cases the mature and immature could easily be distinguished by size.

In the hatching experiments the adult worms were removed from the host, left over-night in 40% seawater, and the eggs produced were removed and kept in 80% seawater in a solid watch-glass.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Cucullanus minutus

The only previous work on the life-history of this species was done by Janiszewska (1939) who described in detail the larval stages recovered from the gut-wall of flounders from the Baltic Sea. The free-living larvae have, however, never been described.

- (i) Larval and adult development.
 - a. The egg:

Length: 61–68 μm Breadth: 34–38 μm

The eggs were prolate spheroids and contained an unsegmented ovum when they left the female. The ova were seen to cleave into two- and four-cell stages, and then after two days the morula and blastula stages were visible. After four days a nematode larva was visible, coiled and moving within the egg-shell, but hatching did not take place until about seven days at 19°C. (133 degree days). Embryonation was very slow at low temperatures and was not observed below 7°C.

b. The first- and second-stage larvae:

Length: 304–374 μm Breadth: 13 μm

The free-living larvae which hatched from the eggs (fig. 1) may have been the first- or second-stage larvae. No sign of a moulted cuticle was visible around the hatched larvae, though if such a cuticle had been tight fitting it may have been present. If this species resembles *C. chabaudi* (Le-Van-Hoa & Pham-Ngoc-Khue, 1967) then the first moult occurs within the egg, or if it resembles *C. heterochrous* (see below) the first larval cuticle is probably not lost until several days have passed in the free-living stage. Either way it is probable that the first- and second-stage larvae are very similar in appearance. Very little of the internal anatomy of these larvae was visible, though the anterior part of the oesophagus could be seen, showing that it was poorly developed compared with the adult. The remainder of the larva was obscured by the nuclei which, at this stage, are tightly packed together. These larvae were very active and capable of swimming. Unlike *C. chabaudi*, no second-stage larvae were ever recovered from the fish host.

c. The third-stage larva (fig. 1):

Length: 600–1,237 μm Breadth: 40–80 μm Oesophagus: 245–306 μm Tail: 71–106 μm

This stage was described in detail by Janiszewska (1939) as the first larval stage from the intestinal wall. These larvae were situated in the mucosa and sub-mucosa of mainly the anterior intestine. The anatomy of this stage was as described by Janiszewska (1939), except that I believe that the thickening of the cuticle on the lips close to the mouth might in fact act as a boring tooth similar to that in the infestive stages of some anisakine nematodes.

d. The fourth-stage larva (figs I & 2):

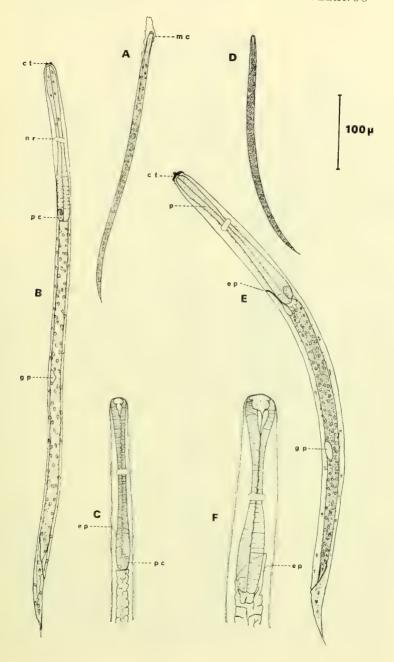
The fourth-stage larvae, or pre-adults, were described in detail by Janiszewska (1939) as the second larval stage from the intestinal wall. These larvae were found wandering through the gut-wall of the flounder feeding upon the tissues as they moved.

e. The immature adult (fig. 2):

These specimens were normally less than 2 mm. in length. It was not determined whether the final moult took place actually inside the body-wall or in the gut-lumen. The immature adults are similar in appearance to the mature adults, except that the sexual organs are not fully developed. The oral spines make their first appearance in the adult stage. These nematodes are capable of a great deal of contraction, and folds in the cuticle may form collars around the body. The behaviour of these immature adults is the same as that of the mature specimens.

Fig. 1. Cucullanid larvae. A. The second-stage larva of Cucullanus heterochrous within the first-stage larval cuticle. B. The third-stage larva of C. heterochrous from the flounder. C. The pre-adult of C. heterochrous. D. The first- or second-stage larva of C. minutus. E. The third-stage larva of C. minutus from the flounder. F. The preadult of C. minutus.

⁽ct, cuticular thickening; ep, excretory pore; gp, genital primordium; mc, moulted cuticle; nr, nerve ring; p, oesophagus; pc, large oesophageal cell)



f. The mature adult:

The mature adults have been described in detail by Gendre (1926), Törnquist (1931) and Berland (1970), and figured by MacKenzie & Gibson (1970). The females were generally longer and in most cases broader than the males. The adults live by moving freely amongst and feeding upon gut-contents, or, when food is not available, by attachment to and feeding upon the gut-wall of the flounder. Attachment to the gut-wall is brought about by the sucking action of the muscular oesophagus, by the collarette and associated oral spines situated on the lips and possibly by the spiny nature of the pseudobuccal cavity. Aspects of the behaviour of this species were discussed by MacKenzie & Gibson (1970).

(ii) Life-history.

In flounders from the River Ythan third-stage larvae were present in small numbers throughout the year, but increased infestation occurred during the early spring (fig. 3), especially during March and April. Fourth-stage larvae were first found in March, but their numbers increased to a maximum during May and June and then fell to a very low level of infestation from August to November. Immature adults were first recovered in April, their numbers increased to a peak in June and July, and then their numbers fell in the autumn. Mature adults were first found in May, their numbers increased to a peak in July and August, and then fell off during the autumn with one or two individuals remaining until December.

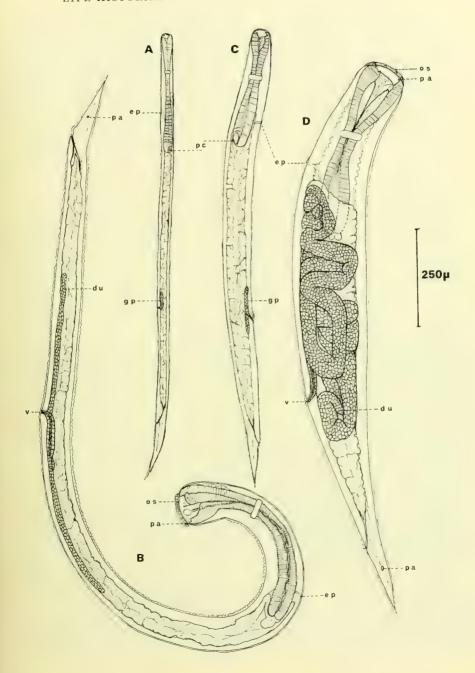
In the marine flounders examined, the third-stage larvae were first recovered in January, the infestation had increased by March, but fell again by June (fig. 3). Fourth-stage larvae were first found in the March sample, the infestation was heavier in June, but had disappeared by September. Juvenile adults were recovered only from the June sample, and mature adults were found in the September and, to a greater extent, in the November samples.

(iii) Discussion.

The major period of egg-production of *C. minutus* in the River Ythan is during the summer months. This means that the eggs probably have time to embryonate and hatch during the late summer and autumn. This suggests that there is a gap of at least four to five months between the hatching of the eggs and the appearance of

Fig. 2. Cucullanid pre-adults and immature adults (all drawings are of female worms).
 A. Pre-adult Cucullanus heterochrous.
 B. Immature adult C. heterochrous.
 C. Pre-adult C. minutus.
 D. Immature adult C. minutus.

⁽ep, excretory pore; du, developing uterus; gp, genital primordium; os, oral spines; pa, papilla; pc, large oesophageal cell; v, vulva)



the third-stage larvae in the flounders. As in the case of C. heterochrous discussed below, there are a number of possible explanations for this apparent gap: (1) an intermediate host is involved. (2) small second-stage larvae were too small to be seen during the flounder examinations, (3) there is an earlier site of infestation where the second-stage larvae develop and moult into the third-stage larvae, and (4) the second-stage larvae develop and grow in the free-living state. With regard to the first possibility. Wülker (1930) suggested that decapods and cumaceans were involved as intermediate hosts, but Janiszewska's (1939) attempts to infest such crustaceans all failed. Markowski (1066) suggested that Nereis diversicolor Müller might serve as an intermediate host for C. minutus, and I too suspected this animal because it occurs in large numbers in muddy estuaries. However, my attempts to infest this species have all failed. Similarly, I have failed to infest or find cucullanid larvae in Neomysis integer (Leach), Corophium volutator (Pallas), gammarids and Crangon vulgaris L., though some development in the free-living state may be necessary before the larvae become infestive. One of the main arguments for the presence of an intermediate host is the accumulation of the majority of the larvae in the anterior intestinal wall of the flounder. The possibility that the second-stage larvae are present in the gut-wall but have not been seen is unlikely because both Janiszewska (1939) and myself have failed to detect them. The possibility that there is an earlier site of infestation in the flounder cannot be overlooked, though none were found by Janiszewska (1939) or by myself, since Le-Van-Hoa & Pham-Ngoc-Khue (1967) did find such a site when studying C. chabaudi. However, as suggested below, the appearance of the third-stage larvae occurs during the period when most of the large flounders are at sea on their spawning migration. Therefore, if the flounders are being infested by the parasite at that time, this accounts for the fact that C. minutus tends to infest the small flounders more heavily than the larger ones (unpublished information) and also accounts for the absence of these larvae in O-group flounders (those less than one-year old). If an earlier infestation of the flounders does occur then alternative explanations must be found for these two results. Evidence for the final possibility, i.e. that the larvae live for some months in the free-living state, is not very forthcoming either, except that free-living larvae are produced when the eggs hatch and that these can be kept alive for more than a week in 80% seawater. As in the case of C. heterochrous discussed below, it is not yet possible to favour any of these alternatives too strongly, though the first and the last possibilities do seem more likely. It is possible, therefore, that the first stage-larvae moult into the second-stage larvae, which is probably the infestive stage, and these grow, with or without the use of an intermediate host, and infest the flounder mainly in the winter and early spring.

Janiszewska (1939) stated that the infestation of the flounders with the third-stage larvae commenced in August, which is earlier than the major period of infestation recorded in flounders from the River Ythan. This difference might be explained by the fact that on the coast of Poland, where Janiszewska (1939) was working, the sea will be warmer in summer than the waters of the River Ythan, and therefore development will be faster. The fact that temperature does affect the development of *C. minutus* is discussed below. In warmer waters, therefore, it is

possible that infestation occurs in the autumn and mature specimens are found in the spring and summer, while in cooler waters the main period of infestation occurs in the early spring and mature adults are found in the late summer and autumn. In marine flounders from the Aberdeen area most of the mature adults were not found until the autumn, and this may account for the fact that third-stage larvae were not found in these fish in the autumn (fig. 3). The fact that the development of this parasite appears to take so long in marine flounders from the Aberdeen region may mean that in most cases the winter arrives and the parasite dies before egg production has really got underway. This could account for the small numbers of this parasite in these marine flounders.

B. Cucullanus heterochrous

The only previous comments on the life-history of this species were given by MacKenzie & Gibson (1970), and there is no previous record of the larval stages.

- (i) Larval and adult development.
 - a. The egg:

Length: $75-102 \mu m$ Breadth: $44-52 \mu m$

The ova in the eggs cleaved in a similar manner to those of *C. minutus*, and larvae developed within the eggs after the same period of time. The eggs hatched after seven days at 19°C. and, like *C. minutus*, embryonation was not observed below 7°C.

b. The first-stage larva:

Length : $400-460 \mu m$ Breadth : $12-14 \mu m$

The first-stage larva developed within the egg, and after hatching was extremely active and capable of swimming. Any details of the anatomy of these larvae were difficult to see because of its small size and heavy concentration of nuclei. However, the anterior oesophagus could be distinguished in some specimens showing that it was very different from that of the adults because the musculature was much less developed.

c. The second-stage larva (fig. 1):

These larvae were so similar to the first stage-larvae that they could only be distinguished when parts of the moulted cuticle were still present. Such forms were found at 19°C. two days after hatching, though when the actual moult occurred is

not known; this may even have been inside the egg. The oesophagus could be seen more clearly in the second-stage larvae, and was about 165 μ m in length. The remainder of the alimentary canal could not be seen, and there was no anus visible.

d. The third-stage larva (fig. 1):

Length: 660–955 μm Breadth: 25–27 μm Oesophagus: 240–293 μm Tail: 78–93 μm

These larvae were found encysted in the gut-wall of the flounder within small round cysts. I have regarded this stage as the third-larval stage because (1) it is parasitic, (2) it is much larger than the second-stage larva, (3) there are morphological differences between the second-stage larva and this larva, and (4) nothing resembling a second-stage larva was ever recovered from the flounder. The oesophagus of these larvae was better developed than in the previous stages, and the large oesophageal cells were visible, as they were in the corresponding stage of *C. minutus*. In the lip-region cuticular thickenings, which may act like boring teeth, were visible. In female specimens (fig. 1) a genital primordium could be seen, though, unlike the equivalent stage of *C. minutus*, I could not ascertain the position of the excretory gland or the excretory pore. The intestine appeared to be in the form of a tube composed of a large number of cells, and for the first time a definite anus could be seen.

The third-stage larva of the closely-related *C. cirratus* Müller, 1777, was recently described by Berland (1970); but this description resembles the fourth-stage larva of *C. heterochrous*. Berland's argument for calling this larva the third-stage larva was because the development of the gonads resembles the third-stage larva of *Contracaecum aduncum* (Rudolphi, 1802), but there is no vulva present in *C. minutus* or *C. heterochrous* until the fourth larval stage. Therefore, because of this and the structure of the head, I consider Berland's specimens to be fourth-stage larvae.

e. The fourth-stage larva (figs 1 & 2):

Length: 620–1,600 µm Breadth: 27–40 µm Oesophagus: 240–359 µm Tail: 89–133 µm

In these larvae, which were observed moulting from the third-stage larvae within the cysts in the gut-wall, the cuticular thickenings on the lips were lost and the oesophagus became similar in shape to that found in the adults. The fourth-stage larvae, or pre-adults, left the cysts and were recovered wandering through the tissues of the gut-wall, feeding as they went. The lips possessed sharp edges which may have been associated with the movement through the tissues, because no oral spines or collarette were present at this stage. The large oesophageal cells were still visible, though they were not as clear as in the previous stage. In the female worms a developing uterus and vulva could be seen, though the vulva did not communicate with the exterior. The excretory pore was situated about half way between the nerve ring and the posterior edge of the oesophagus.

f. The immature adult (fig. 2):

Length: 1–6 mm., e.g. Length: 5,380 μm

 $\begin{array}{lll} Breadth: & \text{150} \ \mu m \\ Oesophagus: & 800 \ \mu m \\ Tail: & \text{173} \ \mu m \end{array}$

Oral spines and the collarette were present at this stage, and the pre-anal sucker and anal papillae were visible in males under a high powered microscope. In the females the uterus and ovaries were developing and the vulva could be seen to be connected to the exterior. These immature adults were found free in the lumen of the gut or attached to the gut-wall. It was not ascertained where in fact the final moult occurred or whether it was the pre-adults or the immature adults which migrated into the gut-lumen.

g. The mature adult:

Mature adults were described by Törnquist (1931) and Berland (1970). My specimens reached up to 12 mm., in the case of the females, and 10 mm. in length in the case of the males. These nematodes wandered through the intestinal contents of the flounder feeding as they went, though, like *C. minutus*, when food was not available they fed upon the gut-wall. Details of the migrations of these nematodes in the gut-environment have been given by MacKenzie & Gibson (1970).

In the past there has been some argument as to the nature of the structures which I have referred to as the oral spines. Gendre (1926), when discussing C. minutus, and Berland (1970) have commented that they may act as supporting 'ribs' for the cuticular collarette, and Berland (1970) also suggested that they may serve as an inter-locking device when the mouth is closed. My electron micrographs of C. heterochrous have shown that the spines, or denticulations, are, for at least the anterior-most part of their length, free of the collarette. They, therefore, probably aid the attachment of the parasite to the gut-wall, and may serve to split this wall and allow the muscular oesophagus to devour parts of the mucosa and sub-mucosa of the host.

(ii) Life-history:

The smallest larvae found in the flounders were the third-stage larvae. These were first recovered from the River Ythan in January, reaching a maximum in April, and then decreasing in numbers to zero in August, (Fig. 3). In marine flounders, however, these were found earlier, in November, when 8.8° of the fish examined contained small numbers of larvae. Due to the small size of these larvae small infestations may have been overlooked in the estuarine flounders, and this might account for this difference, but as mentioned below it is probable that there are no such larvae present in the Ythan estuary during these months. Fourthstage larvae were first found in estuarine flounders during March. Their number increased to a maximum in May, and then decreased during the summer. In marine flounders their numbers increased during the late autumn and they were present in large numbers during the winter and spring. The dip in the level of infestation in marine flounders during the late winter may have been caused by the estuarine flounders entering the marine population at that time. Thus, as in the case of the third-stage larvae, the pre-adults are present in marine flounders long before they are in estuarine flounders.

Immature adults made their first appearance in the estuarine flounders during March, their numbers increased to a maximum intensity in June and a maximum incidence in July, and then their numbers decreased to zero by the following January. In marine flounders the numbers increased during the spring, as in Ythan flounders, but did not reach a peak until the autumn. This was possibly because the sea is cooler than the waters of the River Ythan during the summer months, and therefore development takes longer. These worms began to mature in estuarine flounders in September, mature adults increased in numbers to a maximum during the winter months and then decreased throughout the following spring. A similar effect was found in the marine flounders.

(iii) Discussion

The discrepancy in the periods of infestation with these larvae between the estuarine and the marine flounders could be the effect of temperature, since the waters of the River Ythan were warmer than the sea during the summer and cooler during the winter (H. D. Dooley, personal communication). However, there is a possibility that infestation with this parasite occurs much more frequently in the sea. This is suggested by the following facts: (1) infestation with this parasite is much heavier in marine flounders; (2) infestation with third-stage larvae proceeds earlier in marine flounders (and (3) this species tends to infest only the larger of the estuarine flounders (unpublished results) possibly because only the larger flounders participate in the spawning migration. It therefore appears that infestation of the marine flounders might occur before the arrival of the estuarine flounders in the sea, and the warmer temperature of the sea during the winter months probably allows faster development of these larvae in marine flounders. The sudden increase in the third-stage larval population in estuarine flounders in April is, therefore, probably associated with the return of some of the larger fish from the sea.

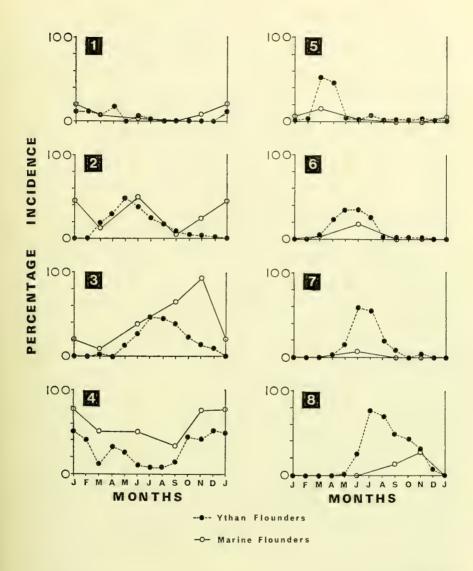


Fig. 3. The effect of season on the incidence of the larval and adult stages of Cucullanus heterochrous and C. minutus in flounders from the Ythan estuary and from the sea off Aberdeen. 1. The third-stage larvae of C. heterochrous. 2. Pre-adults of C. heterochrous. 3. Immature adults of C. heterochrous. 4. Mature adults of C. heterochrous. 5. Third-stage larvae of C. minutus. 6. Pre-adults of C. minutus. 7. Immature adults of C. minutus. 8. Mature adults of C. minutus.

The difference in size between the free-living second-stage larvae and the thirdstage larvae recovered from the flounders suggests that: (1) smaller second- or third-stage larvae were missed during the examinations of the gut-wall; (2) there is an earlier site of infestation in the flounder; (3) there is an intermediate host; or (4) the second-stage larvae undergo a period of growth in the free-living state. Dealing with each point in turn, the first suggestion seems unlikely as no equivalent larvae were found by Janiszewska (1939) or myself in C. minutus. However, the second suggestion that there is an earlier site of infestation is a possibility, because Le-Van-Hoa & Pham-Ngoc-Khue (1967) found second-stage larvae of C. chabandi, which migrated to the liver for the second moult, growing in the swim-bladder. It is therefore possible that such larvae might occupy a similar site in the body of the flounder. However, as stated below, it is most probable that most of the eggs hatch in the late spring and early summer, and therefore these larvae would be expected to infest the flounders at least by the autumn, long before the estuarine flounders enter the sea. Thus the high infestation in estuarine flounders returning to the estuaries in spring and the absence of larvae in O-group flounders cannot be explained by this suggestion, unless an earlier site of infestation is associated with the third and fourth suggestions. The third suggestion, that an intermediate host is involved, is doubtful because there is no evidence for the presence of such a host either in this species or in the other species of the genus discussed earlier. The life-cycle of the Camallanidae, nematodes with a similar mode of life, does in fact involve an intermediate host, but these are no longer thought to be closely related to the Cucullanidae (Inglis, 1967). The final suggestion, that the second-stage larvae grow in the freeliving state, is suggested by the fact that free-living second-stage larvae were kept alive for more than a week in the laboratory. Both the third and the final suggestions would account for the apparent gap of several months between hatching and the appearance of the third-stage larvae in the flounders, the infestation acquired by the estuarine flounders when they entered the sea, and the absence of these larvae in O-group flounders. However, there is no further evidence for the latter suggestion, and, as stated by MacKenzie & Gibson (1970), the free-living larvae would penetrate neither the skin nor the gut-wall of the flounder. Though the larvae used for these latter experiments were recently hatched specimens, and it is possible that some development in the free-living stage is required before the larvae become infestive. It is clear that, at this stage, it is not yet possible to favour strongly any one of these suggestions until more information is available. Circumstances beyond my control hampered further work on this problem, but in my opinion the latter suggestion seems at present to be the most likely possibility, though the presence of an earlier site of infestation or possibility of an intermediate host cannot yet be overlooked

In spite of the gap with regard to the actual method of infestation of the flounder, these results do give a good indication of what takes place during the life-history of this parasite. In my opinion, using the information given above, the life-history of *C. heterochrous* may occur as follows:

Most of the eggs are produced during the winter and early spring months, they hatch in the late spring and early summer when the water becomes warm enough

(7°C.) and release free-living first-stage larvae. These require a number of days to moult into the second-stage larvae, which live on the sea-floor, grow and become infestive in the late autumn, winter and following spring. This coincides with the appearance of the third-stage larvae in the flounders. Most of these larvae moult into fourth-stage larvae (pre-adults) around April to May (though perhaps much earlier in marine flounders), and from then until June to July they grow inside the gut-wall feeding upon the tissues. During these latter two months many of the pre-adults moult into small immature adults, which, in the lumen of the gut, proceed to grow and slowly mature until the late autumn, winter and early spring when they begin to produce eggs. The mature adults continue to grow and produce eggs until their numbers decline in the late spring and summer. Nearly all the old adults are lost by the autumn.

5. FINAL DISCUSSION

In both *C. minutus* and *C. heterochrous* in flounders from the River Ythan the main period of apparent infestation coincides with the spawning migration. The fact that larvae of *C. minutus* tended to infest the smaller flounders and those of *C. heterochrous* the larger flounders (unpublished information) might be explained thus: *C. minutus* is a very common parasite of flounders from the Ythan estuary (Gibson, 1972), and as the smaller flounders do not take part in the spawning migration they are much more available to the parasite at this time, and, similarly, *C. heterochrous* is a very common parasite of flounders from the sea off Aberdeen (Gibson, 1972) and, as it is only the larger flounders which migrate into the sea, they will stand a better chance of becoming infested. It therefore appears that large flounders may migrate into the sea and become infested with *C. heterochrous* while the small flounders remain in the estuary and become more heavily infested with *C. minutus*.

In marine flounders C. minutus does not appear to develop to maturity until several months later than it does in estuarine flounders. This may be caused by the fact that the water-temperature of the Ythan estuary is warmer than that of the sea during the summer. The possibility that the development of this parasite is affected by temperature is also suggested by the fact that mature specimens were obtained from flounders at Plymouth in April, two months earlier than in flounders from the Ythan estuary. Further evidence can be deduced from the work of Markowski (1966), who found C, minutus in flounders from a brackish water reservoir containing water partially heated by the cooling water of a power-station, and in the sea a few yards away only a small number of flounders were infested with this parasite. When the zoogeography of this species is studied it is noticeable that C. minutus has not been found in northern waters except by Rudolphi (1819) and Janiszewska (1939) in the Baltic Sea, von Linstow (1904) reported Dacnitis fusiformis Molin, a synonym of C. minutus, from the Murman coast; but his specimens were from the rectum of the flounder and, as shown by MacKenzie & Gibson (1970). C. minutus is very rarely found in the rectum of the flounder, whereas C. heterochrous is most commonly found in that region of the gut. C. minutus has normally been found in a more southerly geographical area, e.g. Gendre (1926) in French estuaries,

Stossich (1800, 1808) and Mola (1928) in the Mediterranean Sea, and Butzkaya (1952), Radulescu & Vasiliu-Suceveanu (1956), Bykhovskaya-Pavlovskaya et al. (1964), Komarova (1966), Markevitch (1967) and Naidenova (1970) in the Black Sea and its associated estuaries. On the other hand C. heterochrous, 'the winter species', has been recorded mainly in the North Sea, the Russian Arctic, the Siberian coast and the Gulf of the St. Lawrence, e.g. Nicoll (1907), Baylis (1928), Wülker (1930), Schuurmans Stekhoven (1935), Kreis (1952), Polyanski (1955), Zhukov (1960), Strelkov (1960), Berland (1961, 1970) and Ronald (1963). This species has been recorded further south only on a small number of occasions, e.g. Stossich (1892, 1898), * as Dacnitis foveolatus (Rud.), in the Mediterranean Sea and Gendre (1927) off the north-west coast of Africa. It therefore appears that C. minutus is a parasite of flatfish living in warmer water than C. heterochrous, and that Aberdeen is close to the northern limit of C, minutus in a marine environment and is in a position where the ranges of these two parasites overlap. Further north it is probable that, except in estuarine conditions which are warmer than the sea during the summer, C. minutus would not be capable of completing its full life-cycle in one year. The Baltic Sea may be an exception to this, as its isolation from the Atlantic Ocean and shallowness means that it is warmer in summer than equivalent latitudes of the North Sea, and, with its lower salinity, it is therefore suitable for the development of this parasite. The slow development and relatively long life of C. heterochrous contrasts with the fast development and short life of C. minutus, for if the above interpretations of the results are correct, the life-history of C. heterochrous takes two years for completion and that of C. minutus only one year. This may explain the fact that C. heterochrous is able to occupy a more northerly geographical range than C. minutus.

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^{*} Stossich's specimens were not from flatfish and may therefore not have been C. heterochrous.

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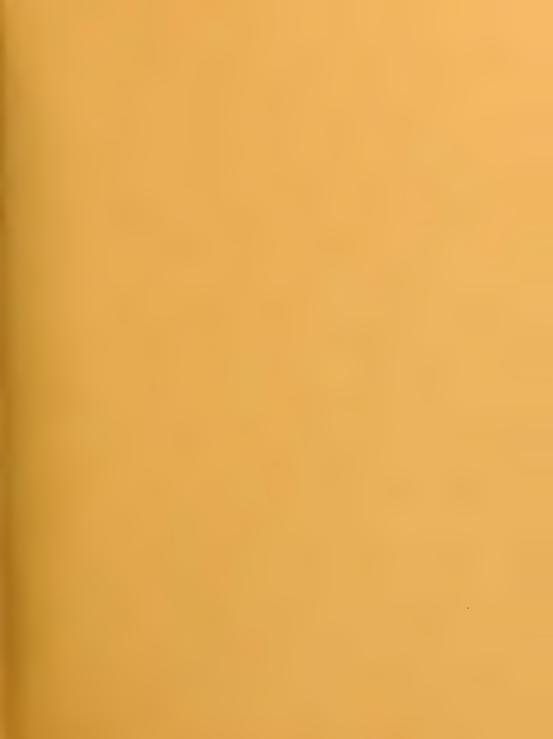
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TRUSTEES OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

BATS FROM THAILAND AND CAMBODIA

RATE TO AND THE PROPERTY OF TH

By J. E. HILL & KITTI THONGLONGYA

INTRODUCTION

THE chiropteran fauna of southeast Asia as a whole is as yet not fully understood and knowledge of the bats of Thailand and Cambodia in particular rests largely on the efforts of a limited number of collectors. In recent years a more active interest in the bats of the region has become apparent and as a result a number of specimens have been received for determination at the British Museum (Natural History). Some of these have led towards the solution of taxonomic problems of long standing: others represent new records or range extensions for Thailand and Cambodia or are examples of taxa rare in collections. The majority of the specimens originate from Thailand and have been obtained over several years by Dr. J. T. Marshall of the United States Army Medical Component, South East Asia Treaty Organization. These were examined initially in Thailand by the junior author and are now in the collection of the British Museum (Natural History), except for a number of duplicate specimens sent to the Smithsonian Institution, Washington. A few specimens collected by the junior author are from the Thai National Reference Collection of which he is Curator. Cambodian specimens obtained by Mr. J. M. Klein are from the Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, a small series of duplicates being retained in the British Museum (Natural History). Measurements are in millimetres: the minimum, maximum and mean (in parentheses) are given for series.

ACCOUNT OF SPECIES

Rousettus amplexicaudatus amplexicaudatus (E. Geoffroy, 1810)

THAILAND: Doi Pha Hom Pok, Fang, Chiangmai, 6,800 feet, c.18° 47' N., 98° 59' E. 13 (young).

Phu Nam Tok Tap Kwang, Kaeng Khoi, Sara Buri, c. 14° 42' N., 100° 52' E.

2 33 (I young).

The specimen from Doi Pha Hom Pok confirms the record by Chasen (1940: 29) of *R.a. amplexicaudatus* from the mountains of northern Thailand, a region apparently on the northwestern border of its distribution.

Rousettus leschenaulti leschenaulti (Desmarest, 1820)

Thailand: Koh Klet, Pak Klet, Nonburi, 13° 50′ N., 100° 29′ E. 1 3.

Bang Phra, Siracha, Chonburi, 13° 12′ N., 100° 57′ E. 8 33 (6 young), 6 99 (young).

Recorded hitherto from the mountainous northern part of Thailand by Chasen (1940: 29). Specimens (B.M. 14.12.8.31–34) reported from Tagoot, Tenasserim, Burma as R. leschenaulti by Wroughton (1915: 702) are in fact R. amplexicaudatus.

Pteropus hypomelanus Temminck, 1853

THAILAND: Tao Poon, Koh Som, Koh Samui, Surat Thani. 13 (young), 2 QQ (1 young).

The small islet of Koh Som is close by the larger island of Samui, in the Bight of Bandon off the east coast of southern Thailand. No collector of mammals appears to have visited it hitherto although Koh Samui was visited by H. C. Robinson and C. B. Kloss in 1913 on behalf of the Federated Malay States Museum. No Pteropus were encountered (Robinson and Kloss, 1915a) and the genus was first reported from the islands by Marshall and Vandee (1970: 504) who recorded these and other specimens obtained in 1968. Pteropus hypomelanus is known to occur on a number of the other small islands off the east coast of the Malay Peninsula and on the Natuna Islands.

The back of the adult female from Koh Som is black, streaked with grey, the mantle bright chestnut and the head greyish, tinged with buff. The underparts are predominantly grey brown or hair brown, excepting for a band of black across the base of the throat. The young male and female have less grey on the back, the mantle bright chestnut in the male and deep rufous in the female, both with blackish brown crown and nape and with black underparts. Measurements of the adult female: length of forearm 141; greatest length of skull 64·3; condylobasal length 62·3; palatal length 36·9; least interorbital width 8·4; postorbital width 7·6; zygomatic width 31·6; braincase width 21·6; mastoid width 10·9; c¹-c¹ 11·0; m¹-m¹ 17·6; c-m² 24·3; length of mandible 48·9; c-m₃ 27·4.

It is difficult to refer these specimens to any of the subspecies of P, hypomelanus so far described from the islands of the South China Sea. The darker back and greyish or black brown crown and nape set them apart from the pale subspecies P.h. lepidus from the majority of the east coast islands of the Malay Peninsula and P.h. canus and P.h. annectens from the North and South Natuna Islands: although the colour of the back resembles that of P.h. condorensis from Con Son Island (Pulo Condore), in this subspecies the crown and nape are chestnut brown like the mantle, Andersen (in Kloss, 1916: 38) reports specimens of P.h. condorensis from certain of the small islands off the southeastern coast of Thailand. These are not in the collection of the British Museum (Natural History) and although the same size as the adult from Koh Som, from the description some examples differ from the Koh Som specimens in the colour of the underparts. Unfortunately, Andersen did not mention the colour of the crown and nape. Insufficient material is available to demonstrate the extent of colour variation in condorensis, and for the present specimens from Koh Som are left unallocated to subspecies.

They are very similar in colour and size to *P.h. geminorum*, so far known from the islands of the west coast of the Peninsula from Paya, off Kedah, States of Malaya, north to the Mergui Archipelago, whence there are specimens in the British Museum (Natural History) from the islands of Barwell, Sir John Hayes, Malcolm and the Gregory group. The adult female from Koh Som corresponds to the hair brown phase of *geminorum* noted by Andersen (1912: 107): the bright chestnut mantle contrasts with the dark seal brown mantle usual in this phase of *geminorum*, but a

similar condition is exhibited by a specimen from Sir John Hayes Island. The two younger specimens correspond to the black-bellied phase noted by Andersen (p. 106). *Pteropus hypomelanus* is found predominantly on islands and has yet to be recorded from the mainland of the Malay Peninsula. It is of interest therefore to report the occurrence of similar populations on small islands lying off the eastern and western coasts at approximately the same latitude.

Cynopterus sphinx angulatus Miller, 1908

Thailand: Doi Pha Hom Pok, Fang, Chiangmai, 6,800 feet, c. 18° 47′ N., 98° 59′ E. 1 3, 2 99.

Doi Ithanon, Chom Thong, Chiangmai, 1,700 metres. 18° 35′ N., 98° 29′ E. 1 ♂. Phu Nam Tok Tap Kwang, Kaeng Khoi, Sara Buri, c. 14° 21′ N., 100° 52′ E. 1 ♀. Bang Phra, Siracha, Chonburi, 13° 12′ N., 100° 57′ E. 22 ♂ (3 young), 25 ♀♀. Koh Klet, Pak Klet, Nonburi, 11 miles north of Bangkok. 1 ♂, 1 ♀. Lumpinee, Bangkok. 1 ♂, 1 ♀.

Cambodia: Prek Tasek, 8 kilometres northwest of Phnom Penh. 1 \(\text{?}. \)
Siem Reap. 1 \(\text{?}. \)

In his monographic study of the Megachiroptera, Andersen (1912) recognized a single species of *Cynopterus*, *C. brachyotis*, in the Malay Peninsula, with two sympatric subspecies, one, *C.b. brachyotis*, with shorter ears and rostrum, the other, *C.b. angulatus*, having longer ears and rostrum. According to Andersen, both occur in Sumatra and throughout much of the Peninsula but *C.b. angulatus* alone extends north of the Peninsula as far as northern Thailand. Neither was thought by Andersen to have any close affinity to the Indian and Javan species *C. sphinx* which he thought occurred on the mainland as far east as northern Thailand (where according to Andersen it is to be found sympatrically with *C.b. angulatus*), although a subspecies, *C.b. titthaecheilus*, was recognized by this author in Java.

However, Kloss (1911: 185) listed angulatus as a distinct species, noting an affinity to C. sphinx and suggesting that angulatus should be regarded as the southern race of the Indian species. Later, Robinson and Kloss (1915a: 133, 1915b: 114) reiterated this suggestion as a logical conclusion, although in both instances these authors follow Andersen in listing angulatus as a subspecies of brachyotis. This led to an exchange of opinion by Andersen and Kloss (1915: 220) in which the views of Andersen seem rather doubtfully to prevail. His opinion is published again in Kloss (1916: 40), who provides further (p. 41) comments on specimens from the islands off southeastern Thailand among which Andersen had identified both C.b. brachyotis and C.b. angulatus. Kloss clearly remained unconvinced and later (1917: 300; Robinson and Kloss, 1918: 26; Kloss, 1919: 361) reverted to the view that angulatus represented a distinct species. Subsequently, Chasen (1940: 25) considered angulatus to be a large subspecies of brachyotis occurring only in the north of the Malay Peninsula and in some nearby islands, a view adopted by Hill (1961: 630) and Medway (1969: 12).

It is evident from the literature that specimens from southern Thailand are critical to any study of the status of angulatus. Sanborn (1952:2) for example

referred specimens from Kwan Don Setul (=Satun) Province to this form but pointed out that some of the specimens examined had ears and rostra which agreed with C. sphinx. In fact, this series reported by Sanborn from a locality almost on the border with Malaya has measurements (length of forearm 61·0-72·4, of ear 16·5-22·0) indicating that it includes both angulatus and brachyotis. These appear to occur together in Perak, in the northern States of Malaya (Andersen, 1912: 614; Hill, 1961: 630); on Koh Lak, off the northeastern part of the Malay Peninsula in southern Thailand (Gyldenstolpe, 1916: 9); on the islands off southeastern Thailand (Andersen, in Kloss, 1916: 40); and now, in the present collection, at Bang Phra, Siracha, yet further north.

Furthermore, specimens of *brachyotis* have been obtained at Khao Luang, Nakhon Si Thamrat, on the eastern side of the Peninsula, which is north of Trang, the type locality of *angulatus*, on the opposite side of the Peninsula. More material than was available to Andersen now exists in the collection of the British Museum (Natural History): in particular, there are good series of specimens from central Burma, from Tenasserim (Wroughton, 1915: 703) and the Mergui Archipelago (Lindsay, 1927: 44), from central and northern Thailand, and from the Malay Peninsula (Hill, 1961: 630).

The specimens now available from this critical area divide into two groups, one of larger examples with longer forearms and ears, the other group with generally shorter forearms and shorter ears (the length of the ear as given here is from the meatus, measured personally or for dry specimens by the collector). These correspond to angulatus and brachyotis as these are defined by Andersen (1912). It is difficult to postulate so extensive an area of intergradation in order to maintain the opinion that angulatus and brachyotis are conspecific. There are two alternatives to the view that angulatus is a subspecies of brachyotis, namely that it is a species distinct from either brachyotis or from sphinx; or that it is a subspecies of sphinx. The latter alternative is adopted here and is supported by the long series of specimens from Burma and Thailand which show that the criterion of rostral length used by Andersen to separate angulatus and C. sphinx sphinx is by no means as exclusive as was thought by that author.

Andersen (pp. 600, 612) considered that angulatus might be distinguished from C.s. sphinx by a shorter rostrum, its length in angulatus being less than one quarter of the total length of the skull, in sphinx one quarter or more. The rostral lengths of specimens from India (C.s. sphinx, C.s. gangeticus), Burma (C.s. sphinx), Thailand, Malaya and Sumatra (angulatus) and Java (C.s. titthaecheilus) are compared graphically against total skull length in Figure 1, the dotted line demonstrating those points at which the rostral length is one quarter of the total skull length. There is no clear separation between Indian, Burmese and Thai specimens and, indeed, in sphinx from Ceylon and titthaecheilus from Java the length of the rostrum is not infrequently less than one quarter of the total length of the skull. The specimens obtained by Dr. Marshall in Thailand are very slightly smaller than C.s. sphinx and have relatively slightly shorter rostra, in these features resembling specimens from Tenasserim and the Malay Archipelago.

There appears to be no exclusive external or cranial feature by which C. sphinx

can be separated from *C. brachyotis*, a difficulty recognized by Andersen (1912:609) who noted that the numerous subspecies of *C. brachyotis* taken together could be separated from the modifications of *C. sphinx* only by their relatively shorter ears. *Cynopterus sphinx* is distributed from India and Ceylon through Burma, Thailand and Indochina to Hong Kong: it extends in the Malay Peninsula as far south as Perak and thence to Sumatra, Java and Timor. Occurring more frequently on islands, *C. brachyotis* extends from Borneo and the Philippine Islands to Java, Sumatra, the Malay Peninsula and its adjacent islands northwards at least as far as southern Thailand and North Vietnam (*C.b. hoffeti* Bourret, 1944), occurring also on the Nicobar Islands and Ceylon. Although on occasion some subspecies (*C.b. scherzeri* from the Nicobar Islands, *C.b. insularum* from Kangean and Mata Siri Islands, off Java) approach or equal the smaller of *C. sphinx* in size, such subspecies have the characteristically smaller ears of *brachyotis*.

There is some overlap between the two species in the area of sympatry from Thailand to Sumatra in both length of forearm and ear, and although a definitive line cannot be drawn for either character, the majority of specimens can be separated readily by a combination of these parameters, which are compared for Burma, Tenasserim, Thailand and Indochina in Figure 2 and for Malaya and Sumatra in Figure 3. A comparable comparison of specimens of sphinx and brachyotis from Ceylon and Java appears in Figure 4. On the mainland and in Sumatra, the

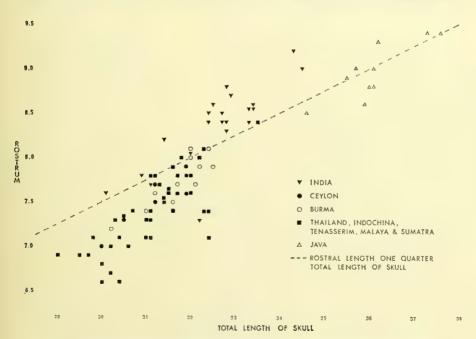


Fig. 1. Length of skull and rostrum (front of orbit to nares) in Cynopterus sphinx.

forearm length of specimens referable to *sphinx* generally exceeds 65 mm, and the length of the ear is greater than 190 mm., while specimens referable to *brachyotis* have forearm and ear lengths only rarely exceeding these values.

The large number of specimens from Thailand show that C.s. angulatus has ears that in length considerably exceed the maximum value of 18-0 mm, which Andersen (1912:612) noted for angulatus when he allocated it to brachyotis as a subspecies. In this connection it should be noted that Andersen stated (p. 612) of angulatus that the measurement of the ear is from the orifice, yet in the typical series measured by Miller (1898:318) the length of the ear from the meatus is given as 18 21 mm, and from the crown 15–18 mm., only the latter being under the maximum given by Andersen for angulatus. Still further, the table of measurements in a British Museum (Natural History) copy of Miller (1898) has been annotated (p. 318) by Andersen to the effect that he has examined the first six specimens tabulated. The

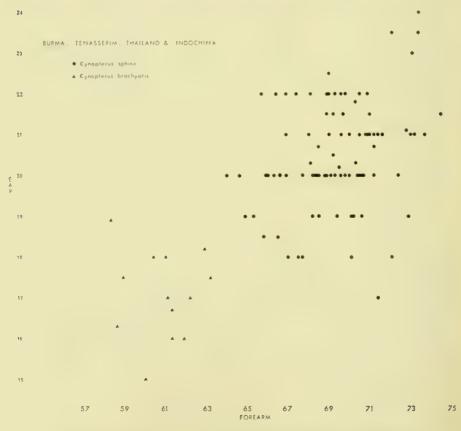


Fig. 2. Length of forearm and ear in Cynopterus sphinx and C. brachyotis.

first of these (U.S. National Museum 83,524) with forearm of 61 mm. and ear 18.4 mm. he notes as C.s. (sic) brachyotis, the remainder as true angulatus, thus demonstrating that the two forms occur together at the type locality of angulatus, Trang, in southern Thailand.

The montane subspecies *C. brachyotis altitudinis* Hill, 1961, from Mount Brinchang, Perak has generally longer ears than *C.b. brachyotis*, reaching a maximum of 20 mm., but has a short forearm only exceptionally reaching a maximum length of 67 mm. Furthermore, it is linked to *C.b. brachyotis* from the surrounding lowlands by intermediates (Hill, 1961: 632).

Chasen (1940: 25) listed the large C. major Miller, 1902, from Nias Island, off west Sumatra as a subspecies of sphinx. Andersen (1912: 630) considered it a representative of 'C. brachyotis angulatus' on account of its ears which he noted (p. 629) as 16·5–18 mm. in length, but Chasen (p. 29) measured the length of the ear at 18·5–20 mm.

Cynopterus brachyotis brachyotis (Müller, 1838)

THAILAND: Khao Luang, Nakhon Si Thamrat, 1,300 feet, 8° 26' N., 99° 58' E. 3 33 (1 young), 1 \, \tau.

Bang Phra, Siracha, Chonburi, 13° 12' N., 160° 57' E. 1 3, 5 99.

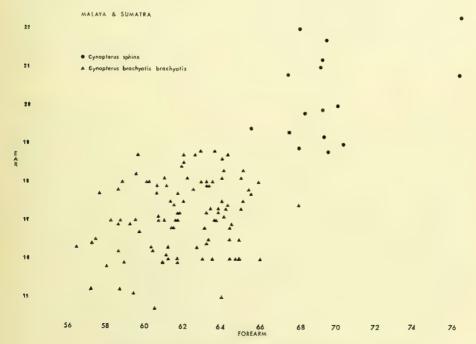


Fig. 3. Length of forearm and ear in Cynopterus sphinx and C. brachyotis.



Fig. 4. Length of forearm and ear in Cynopterus sphinx and C. brachyotis.

FOREARM

These specimens agree exactly with *C.b. brachyotis* from the southern part of the Malay Peninsula: those from Bang Phra constitute the northernmost record in Thailand: *C.b. brachyotis* occurs also on the islands of Chang, Mehsi East, Kra, Klum, Kut and Lak in the Gulf of Siam.

Megaerops ecaudatus (Temminck, 1837)

THAILAND: Khao Luang, Nakhon Si Thamrat, 1,300 feet, 8° 26' N., 99° 58' E. I 3, I 3.

Doi Pha Hom Pok, Fang, Chiangmai, 6,800 feet, 18° 47' N., 98° 59' E. 1 &.

This species apparently has not been recorded hitherto from Thailand although known from Malaya (Bonhote, 1903: 15; Hill, 1961: 636) and both North and South Vietnam (Van Peenen, Ryan and Light, 1969: 41).

Chironax melanocephalus (Temminck, 1825)

THAILAND: Khao Luang, Nakhon Si Thamrat, 1,300 feet, 8° 26' N., 99° 58' E. I Q.

No skull is available to confirm the identification of this specimen as C. melanocephalus, but it has the characteristically darker head of that species with bright orange patches at the sides of the throat just anterior to the shoulders. Chironax melanocephalus has been reported from Selangor (Chasen, 1940: 30, Hill, 1961: 640) and, more recently, specimens (B.M.67. 1484–1488) have been received from Gunong Benom, Pahang, but the species has not before been reported from Thailand. The specimen from Khao Luang agrees well with one from Pahang but the head is a little less intensely black, the underside rather more brownish and the orange throat patches less prominent. Length of forearm 47·3.

Sphaerias blanfordi (Thomas, 1891)

THAILAND: Doi Pha Hom Pok, Fang, Chiangmai, 6,800 feet, 18° 47' N., 98° 59' E. I Q (young adult).

This species has evidently an extensive range through the montane areas of southeastern Asia. The original material consisted of three examples (one, B.M.90.4.7.6, in the collections of the British Museum (Natural History)) collected by Fea at Leito, Cheba, Karin Hills, Burma at 1,000 metres, while subsequently Allen and Coolidge (1941: 136) recorded two specimens from Mount Angka (Doi Inthanon), in northern Thailand, at 4,000 feet. More recently, Bhat (1968: 471) has recorded S. blanfordi from various Indian localities in Uttar Pradesh, at elevations ranging from 800 to 2,710 metres. Measurements of the specimen from Doi Pha Hom Pok: length of forearm 52.0; total length of skull 27.8; condylobasal length —; condylocanine length —; length orbit to nares 7.0; lachrymal width 7.0; least interorbital width 5.3; postorbital width 6.7; zygomatic width 15.5; diameter of orbit 6.5; braincase width 11.8; mastoid width 11.3; c1-c1 5.8; least width between bases of canines 3.1, p4-p4 5.3, least width between p4-p4 4.7; m1-m1 7.5; least width between m1-m1 5.6; width mesopterygoid fossa 3.8; c-m1 8.6; length of mandible 19.9; coronoid height 7.7; c-m2 9.8.

Macroglossus minimus sobrinus Andersen, 1911

Thailand: Doi Inthanon, Chom Thong, Chiangmai, 1,700 metres, 18° 35' N., 98° 29' E. 1 2.

Ban Bangmakham, Koh Samui, Surat Thani, 9° 30′ N., 100° 00′ E. 1 J.,

Khao Luang, Nakhon Si Thamrat, 1,300 feet, c. 8° 26′ N., 99° 58′ E. I 3, I Q (young).

Ellerman and Morrison-Scott (1951:101) do not include Thailand in the distribution of M. minimus although the species is listed by these authors from Tenasserim. However, Horsfield (1851:29) lists a specimen in the Museum of the East India Company collected in Thailand by Finlayson, apparently the same specimen listed subsequently from the Indian Museum by Anderson (1881:107), and Bonhote (1903:15) records a specimen from Patani, in southern Thailand.

Taphozous theobaldi theobaldi Dobson, 1872

THAILAND: Sara Buri. 13.

Khao Lom Phat, 21 kilometres eastnortheast of Sara Buri. 1 ♀.

Described from Tenasserim, T. theobaldi was listed from Thailand by Pousargues (1904:544) and has been recorded subsequently from North Vietnam (Bourret, 1944:9) and South Vietnam (Van Peenen, Ryan and Light, 1969:50). Measurements (\mathcal{S} , \mathcal{S}): length of forearm 74·0, 74·1; greatest length of skull 24·2, 23·6; condylocanine length 23·9, 23·5; least interorbital width 7·5, 7·0; postorbital width 5·2, 5·3; zygomatic width 14·3, 14·1; braincase width 10·8, 11·1; mastoid width 12·8, 12·6; c¹-c¹ 4·9, 4·8; m³-m³ 10·2, 10·1; c-m³ 10·7, 10·5; length of mandible 18·7, 18·5; c-m³ 11·8, 11·7.

Taphozous longimanus longimanus Hardwicke, 1825

CAMBODIA: Prek Phnau, 6 kilometres northeast of Phnom Penh. 2 99.

Cambodia, no certain locality. 5 99.

Taphozous longimanus has not hitherto been reported from Cambodia although known to occur in Tenasserim (Wroughton, 1915: 706) and further north in Burma (Wroughton and Davidson, 1918: 477, Wroughton, 1918b: 25). The wings of these specimens are dusky, and they are referred to the nominate subspecies rather than to the pale-winged T.l. albipinnis from the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra and Borneo. Length of forearm 62·0, 62·3: of five females of uncertain provenance 60·5–63·1 (61·5).

Rhinolophus affinis macrurus Andersen, 1905

THAILAND: Doi Inthanon, Chom Thong, Chiangmai, 18° 35' N., 98° 29' E. 1 3. Ban Papae, Mae Sariang, Mae Hong Son, 2,365 feet, c. 18° 45' N., 97° 55' E. 1 3. Now Senckenberg Museum No. 33816.

Longer tails (c. 26-29 mm.) refer these specimens to R. a macrurus rather than to R. a superans from the Malay Peninsula.

Rhinolophus malayanus Bonhote, 1903

THAILAND: Phu Nam Tok Tap, Kwang, Kaeng Koi, Sara Buri c. 14° 12′ N., 100° 52′ E. 1 \copp.

First described from Biserat, in Jalor, southern Thailand, the range of this species has since been extended to include Perlis, in the northern States of Malaya (Hill, in press), Pulau Langkawi, off the west coast of the Malay Peninsula (Hill, in press), Koh Lak, off the east coast of southern Thailand (Gyldenstolpe, 1916:13); Laos (Andersen, 1905: 89, Tate and Archbold, 1939: 6; Phillips, 1967: 634) and tentatively North Vietnam (Osgood, 1932:218). Measurements of the specimen from Sara Buri: length of forearm 40·1: greatest length of skull 18·3; greatest length to canine 17·3; condylocanine length 15·2; supraorbital length (distance from junction of supraorbital ridges to median anterior point of nasal swellings) 5·0; least interorbital width 1·9; zygomatic width 8·7; braincase width 7·4; mastoid width 8·3; c¹-c¹ 4·2; m³-m³ 6·4; c-m³ 6·7; length of mandible 11·3; c-m₃ 7·0.

Phillips (1967: 634) considers that on the basis of the published description it is probable that Rhinolophus chaseni Sanborn, 1939 from Con Son Island (Pulo Condore), off the southeastern coast of South Vietnam will prove conspecific with R. malayanus. Elsewhere, one of us (Hill, in press) has indicated that chaseni (probably the bat reported from Con Son as R. minor by Pousargues, 1904: 544) is not closely related to malayanus as was suggested by its describer but instead should be considered a subspecies of R. borneensis. Rhinolophus malayanus differs from R. borneensis chiefly in the form of the anterior nasal swellings: in malayanus the median swellings are large and much inflated, extending laterally down the sides of the rostrum to the extent that the lateral swellings are relatively small, while in borneensis the median swellings are smaller and less inflated, not extending laterally down the sides of the rostrum, with the lateral swellings conspicuously larger than in malayanus. Examination of the holotype of chaseni shows it to belong with borneensis rather than with malayanus.

Rhinolophus shameli Tate, 1943

THAILAND: Ban Bon Dan, kilometre 58, Route 23, Korat, 400 metres. 1 3.

Самворіа: Preah Khan, Siem Reap, 3 ♂♂. і ♀.

Shamel (1942: 319) referred two specimens from Thailand in the Smithsonian Institution to *R. coelophyllus* Peters, 1867, a species rare in collections and characterized by the unique hood-like appearance of the posterior nose-leaf, the connecting process entering a vertical fissure in its anterior face. The two specimens reported by Shamel, however, differed sufficiently from each other in a number of respects that this author described them individually. Subsequently, Tate (1943: 2) considered that one, from the island of Chang in the Gulf of Siam, merited subspecific separation as *R.c. shameli* when compared with the other specimen, obtained at Chiangmai in northern Thailand. Apart from these specimens, *R. coelophyllus* has been reported from the Salween River (the type locality); from Tsagine (Sagain), Upper Burma (Ellerman and Morrison-Scott, 1951: 123); from Koh Lak off the

east coast of southern Thailand (Gyldenstolpe, 1911:16) and from the States of Malaya (Chasen, 1940:42). The specimens now reported from Thailand and Cambodia, however, together with others obtained recently on Pulau Langkawi, off the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, suggest that *shameli* represents a distinct species.

According to Shamel (1942: 319) the specimen from Koh Chang (shameli) is much more brightly coloured than that from Chiangmai and differs also in the configuration of the upper surface of the rostrum, which posteriorly to the nasal swellings is flat and not excavated, the margins formed by the division and forward extension of the sagittal crest not ridged or beaded. In the specimen from Chiangmai this region is scooped out, the margins of this depression formed by strong, beaded supraorbital ridges developed from the forward extension and division of the sagittal crest. Tate (1943: 3) in describing the specimen from Koh Chang as shameli points out that it is considerably larger than the example from Chiangmai, as can be seen from the measurements published by Shamel, and also that it has hyopsodont teeth, these features together with its more brilliant coloration forming the basis of his diagnosis.

The specimen reported here from Ban Bon Dan agrees closely in colour with the description by Shamel (1942: 319) of the example from Koh Chang subsequently designated as the holotype of *shameli* by Tate. The head is dark brown to the anterior bases of the ears: the remainder of the dorsal surface is bright golden brown, anteriorly slightly more brilliant, posteriorly a little browner. The individual hairs are pale cream for most of their length, tipped with the brighter colour. The ventral surface is paler, overall orange buff, lacking brown, the hairs orange buff at the base and for most of their length, with brighter tips. Cranially, the specimen agrees exactly with the description by Shamel of the Koh Chang example, the upper surface of the rostrum flat and not margined by prominent supraorbital ridges.

Specimens from Cambodia (whence neither coelophyllus nor shameli have been reported hitherto) and Upper Burma agree in size and rostral features with shameli but differ in colour. These specimens are brown dorsally, the individual hairs pale greyish white at the base: the ventral surface by contrast is very much paler, the throat, chest and belly pale buff, the hairs creamy white at the base and tipped with buff or buff brown. The flanks and inguinal region are slightly darker, the hair tips brown and lacking any buff. Since in all other respects these specimens agree exactly with shameli they support the view that this species exists in a brownish phase and a contrasting brighter, more reddish phase, a phenomenon not uncommon in Rhinolophus.

The collections of the British Museum (Natural History) include one example from Kedah and two from Pulau Langkawi which agree closely in colour with the specimens from Cambodia and Upper Burma referred here to shameli and with the description of a single specimen from Chiangmai reported by Shamel (1942:319): those from Langkawi (in alcohol) are very slightly browner ventrally than those from Cambodia. However, the three specimens are very much smaller than shameli and the upper surface of the rostrum is in each deeply excavated behind the nasal swellings, the depression enclosed laterally by prominent supraorbital ridges formed

from the anterior division of the sagittal crest, while all have less massive teeth. In these respects, they thus resemble precisely the specimen described from Chiangmai by Shamel which Tate (1943:3) noted was 'probably referable to the type from Salween River, Burma'. The type specimen of coelophyllus is small (forearm length 42, according to Peters, 1867a:427) and for the present this name is used for the smaller species to which the Chiangmai, Kedah and Langkawi specimens belong. Those from Koh Lak reported by Gyldenstolpe (1911:16) are cranially a little smaller and may represent an undescribed subspecies of R. coelophyllus as Tate (p. 3) suggests. Measurements of R. shameli and R. coelophyllus are compared in Table 1.

Rhinolophus acuminatus Peters, 1871

THAILAND: Chonburi, 13° 22′ N., 100° 59′ E. 1 3, 2 99 (1 young).

Bang Phra, Siracha, Chonburi, 13° 12′ N., 100° 57′ E. 233 (1 now Senckenberg Museum No. 33817).

т♀ Самворіа: Preah Khan, Siem Reap. 3 33, т♀.

Rhinolophus acuminatus is recorded from Thailand and Laos by Dobson (1878: 878) and Pousargues (1904: 544) and from Thailand by Shamel (1942: 321) and Sanborn (1952: 3): these specimens from Preah Khan constitute the first record of the species from Cambodia. Specimens from Thailand and Cambodia agree very closely in colour and size with an extensive series of R.a. acuminatus (to which Thai specimens are referred by Shamel and by Sanborn) from Java. Six examples (including three from Cambodia) are in the dark or grey phase, the dorsal pelage greyish brown, the hairs tipped light grey or silver, especially anteriorly: the ventral surface is pale grey. Three (including one from Cambodia) display the red or russet phase and are dorsally reddish brown, ventrally a little paler. A single example exhibits a condition midway between these extremes: the anterior part of the back is greyish brown, tinged with russet, the posterior back russet, while the ventral surface is suffused with russet yet retains much of its greyish tinge.

Although there is a good series of R.a. acuminatus in the British Museum (Natural History), the remaining subspecies, R.a. audax from Lombok, the Sumatran R.a. sumatranus, R.a. calypso from Enggano Island, off Sumatra and R.a. circe from nearby Nias Island are as yet only very poorly represented. Furthermore, Chasen and Kloss (1932: 48) identify as R. acuminatus a specimen from Sabah, Borneo which Chasen (1940: 39, footnote) suggested might represent an undescribed subspecies, provisionally associating it with R.a. sumatranus. Allen and Coolidge (1940: 136) did not allocate specimens from Mount Kinabalu to subspecies, but Medway (1965: 54) lists Bornean specimens as R.a. sumatranus. In these circumstances it is difficult to assess subspecific variation in R. acuminatus and for

the present mainland specimens are left unallocated.

Rhinolophus borneensis Peters, 1861

CAMBODIA: Preah Khan, Siem Reap. 233.

There appears to be but one previous report of R. borneensis from the mainland of southeastern Asia, by Robinson and Kloss (1915b: 116), who tentatively identified

TABLE I

Measurements of Rhinolophus shameli, R. coelophyllus

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поізвооД	Holotype. Koh Chang - Upper Burma - Upper Rorat, Thailand Rorat, Thailand cambodia	7·6 Chiangmai, Thailand 7·5 Kedah 7·6 Langkawi 7·5 Koh Lak 7·0
с-ш3	8.7.9.9.1.8.1.8.1.8.1.8	
Length of mandible	12:6	† 11.9 11.0 11.0
c-ur ₃	8.04 7.6 7.8 7.8 7.9 7.9	7.5 7.2 7.3 7.2 6.5
$e^{tu-\epsilon tu}$	6.9 6.7 7.3 7.1 7.1	6.6
$c_1 \ c_1$	11.00 4 4 8.90 0.00	4.6
Mastoid width	1 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	9.2 6.2 6.2 1.8 8.1
depth Braincase	6.6 6.0 5.7 5.8 5.9	5.3
Braincase	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	8.2 8.3 8.6 7.6
Zygomatic width	9.0 9.4 9.9 9.9 9.9	9.5 9.4 9.6 8.1
Least inter- orbital width	2.0 1.9 1.8 1.8	2.0
Rostral widtl	5.5 5.5 5.5 5.5 5.5 5.5 5.5 5.5 5.5 5.5	8 4 4 9 9 1
Width across nasal swelling	5.5 5.3 5.5	5.5 5.0 5.0 5.4 7,4
Condylocanin length	17.6 16.7 17.5 17.4 17.7	16.3
Greatest leng to canine	19.1 20.0 19.5 20.0 20.0	18.8
Condylobasal length	18.6 18.1 18.6 18.5	17.5
Greatest leng of skull	20°7 20°7 20°7 20°7 20°7	19.0 19.4 19.4 17.6 17.8
тівэтоі	46.2† 45.7 40.4 40.4 46.2 46.2	41.0* 42.9 42.7 44.7 41.2 41.4
Sex Length of	**************************************	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
	R. shameli U.S.N.M.267255* 9.1.4.14 76.5.26.2 J.T. Marshall Paris Mus.	A. cottophyuns U.S.N.M. 267260* 98.10.1.1. 68.821 Gyldenstolpe

† Tate (1942: 6) gives 46.0 and 8.5 for these values

* from Shamel

a specimen from Khao Nawng, Bandon, southern Thailand with this species. This specimen, however, later became the holotype of *R. robinsoni* Andersen, 1918. *Rhinolophus borneensis spadix* from the Natuna and Karimata Islands seems only barely separable (Andersen, 1905: 87) from the Bornean subspecies *R.b. borneensis* by virtue of its very slightly larger ears. Both subspecies, like the Cambodian specimens, are a little larger in some respects than the holotype of *R.b. chaseni* Sanborn, 1939 (see above, under *R. malayanus*) from Con Son Island (Pulo Condore), but measurements of a series of *chaseni* given by Van Peenen, Ryan and Light (1969: 59) and by Van Peenen, Cunningham and Duncan (1970: 421) (in which by a lapsus the length of the forearm is given as the greatest skull length, the latter appearing as the zygomatic breadth) approach or overlap those of mainland specimens. It may well be, therefore, that *chaseni* will prove to be the correct subspecific name for the mainland population.

Specimens reported as *Rhinolophus* sp. from North Vietnam by Osgood (1932:219) seem perhaps referable to *R. borneensis*. In size they agree with those reported from Cambodia, and Osgood notes that the development of the nasal swellings is perhaps less than in *malayanus*, the skulls agreeing in general robustness with *stheno*. In *borneensis* the median nasal swellings are smaller than those of *malayanus* (see above, under *R. malayanus*), and, so far as mainland specimens are concerned, the skull is generally more robust, similar in this respect to *stheno*. Measurements of the Cambodian specimens, with those of the holotype of *R.b. chaseni* (in parentheses): length of forearm 44·1, 43·4, (41·3); greatest length of skull 19·7, 19·3 (18·7); condylocanine length 17·3; 17·6 (16·5): rostral width 5·3, 5·3, (5·3); width across nasal swellings 5·5, 5·5, (5·5); least interorbital width 2·5, 2·3 (2·5): zygomatic width 9·9, 9·9 (9·3); braincase width 8·3, 8·4 (8·2); mastoid width 9·5, 9·5, (8·8); c¹-c¹ 4·8, 4·9 (4·9); m³-m³ 7·2, 6·8, (6·8); c-m³ 7·7, 7·4, (7·3); length of mandible -, 12·7, -; c-m₃ 8·3, 8·0, (7·8).

Coelops frithii Blyth, 1848

THAILAND: Khao Luang, Nakhon Si Thamrat, 1,300 feet, 8° 26' N., 99° 58' E.

The elongate, narrow outline of the lappets projecting from the supplementary leaflets flanking the anterior noseleaf suggests that this specimen should be referred to *C. frithii* rather than to *C. robinsoni* in which these lappets are rounded and wider. Unfortunately, the skull, which would provide a more definite indication, is missing. Length of forearm 38·2.

Robinson and Kloss (1915b: 116) record two specimens from Khao Nawng, Bandon, southern Thailand as *C. robinsoni*. These, formerly in the collection of the Federated Malay States Museum (531/12, 532/12), are now in the collections of the British Museum (Natural History) (B.M. 68, 605–606). Elsewhere, one of us (Hill, in press), in a review of the species of *Coelops*, has shown these to be examples of *C. frithii*, which is recorded from Chiangmai by Gyldenstolpe (1916: 15) and listed from Laos by Pousargues (1904: 544).

Myotis hasseltii continentis Shamel, 1942

Cambodia: Prek Phnau, 6 kilometres northeast of Phnom Penh. 3 33, 3 99. Large-footed Myotis of southeastern Asia stand in need of revision, but at the present time there is insufficient material in the collections of the British Museum (Natural History) from a suitably wide range of localities for this to be undertaken in detail. Specimens attributed to the named forms horsfieldii, hasseltii, and adversus have been reviewed recently (Hill, in press) and there seems little doubt that M. horsfieldii (Temminck, 1840) must be considered a distinct species (Medway, 1965: 60) on account of its small size, blackish coloration and narrow braincase when compared with hasseltii and adversus. Myotis deignani Shamel, 1942, from Chiangmai, northern Thailand seems likely to be a subspecies of horsfieldii. Myotis hasseltii (Temminck, 1840) applies apparently to larger specimens in which the pelage is short, the post-palatal extension short and lacking thin bony laminae to support the post-palatal spine, in which i² and i³ are relatively massive, the second upper premolar (pm³) is minute, usually intruded from the toothrow and the second lower premolar (pm3) very small, intruded from the toothrow sometimes to the extent that pm2 and pm4 are in contact or nearly so. Myotis adversus (Horsfield, 1824) is characterized by dense, woolly pelage, a long post-palatal extension with thin bony laminae supporting the post-palatal spine, pm³ less reduced, usually not much intruded from the toothrow and with pm₃ although reduced, in the toothrow or only very slightly intruded.

Myotis hasseltii is distributed from Ceylon, Thailand and Indochina to Malaya, Java and Borneo. Specimens from Thailand and Cambodia agree closely with the description of Myotis adversus continentis Shamel, 1942: 323 which apparently is referable to hasseltii rather than to adversus. Shamel says 'fur velvety and short': pm³ is crowded inwards, with pm² and pm⁴ in contact, while pm₃ is small, but in the holotype standing in the toothrow. According to Medway (1965: 62) M.h. macellus (Temminck, 1835) is the Bornean subspecies. Myotis adversus occurs in Java (M.a. adversus) and Borneo (M.a. carimatae Miller, 1906) east to Australia (M.a. moluccarum

(Thomas, 1915)).

Minimum, maximum and mean length of forearm in five specimens of M. hasseltii continentis from Cambodia $36\cdot8-39\cdot2$ ($38\cdot2$); measurements of three skulls ($36\cdot8-39\cdot2$); greatest length $15\cdot3$, $15\cdot3$, $15\cdot3$; condylobasal length $14\cdot4$, $14\cdot6$, $14\cdot6$; least interorbital width $4\cdot2$, $4\cdot1$, $4\cdot0$; zygomatic width $10\cdot2$, $9\cdot9$, $10\cdot2$; width of braincase $7\cdot8$, $7\cdot6$, $7\cdot8$; mastoid width $8\cdot6$, $8\cdot4$, $8\cdot6$; c^1-c^1 $4\cdot3$, $4\cdot3$, $4\cdot3$; m^3-m^3 $6\cdot1$, $6\cdot2$, $6\cdot0$; $c-m^3$ $5\cdot5$; $5\cdot6$, $5\cdot7$; length of mandible -, $11\cdot1$, $10\cdot9$; $c-m_3$ $6\cdot1$, $6\cdot2$.

Myotis annectans (Dobson, 1871)

THAILAND: Doi Pui, Chiangmai, 1,250 metres. 1 Q. Collected by Kitti Thonglongya and now in the Thai National Reference Collection.

Topal (1970a) has recently examined the holotype of *Pipistrellus annectans* Dobson, 1871: 213 from the Naga Hills, Assam, in the Indian Museum, Calcutta and concluded that despite the absence of the small second premolars (pm $\frac{3}{3}$) it should be referred to *Myotis*. Furthermore, Topal has concluded that it is synonymous

with Myotis primula Thomas, 1920: 248 from Pashok, near Darjeeling, northeastern India, which it antedates by many years. A result of this conclusion is that the subgeneric name Megapipistrellus Bianchi, 1917 with type species Pipistrellus annectans Dobson must be transferred to Myotis. Apart from the original, the only other record of P. annectans seems to be the report by Schneider (1905: 80) of three specimens identified by Leche from the Upper Langkat, Sumatra and at that time in the Zoological Institute of the University of Stockholm. Schneider gave no diagnostic features but subsequently the specimens were described in detail by Arnbäck-Christie-Linde (1909: 574). They are, however, much too small to be referred to annectans.

The specimen from Chiangmai agrees exactly with the description of *Pipistrellus annectans* by Dobson and provides an opportunity to describe the coloration of the species, the holotype being in alcohol, and also to make a direct comparison with the holotype of *Myotis primula*. Dorsally, the Chiangmai specimen is rich dark chestnut brown, the individual hairs dark brown at the base, tipped with paler brown. The ventral surface, including the underside of the head and throat, is greyish for the most part, with brown underlay, the hairs dark brown at the base, heavily tipped with greyish white. The hair tips on the belly are ochraceous or orange to produce an orange yellow median patch. The pelage is rather long and woolly, extending slightly on to the endopatagium but hardly at all on to the uropatagium.

The face is densely hairy, excepting the nostrils and the areas around the lips and eyes, the pelage forming a dense fringe on the forehead. Ears translucent distally, less so proximally, of moderate size with rounded tips. The anterior margin of the ear is strongly convex proximally, less so distally, the posterior margin sharply concave just below the tip, becoming convex, slightly concave again near the base of the tragus, with a small antitragal lobe. The tragus is long and tapering, with an acute, rounded tip, its anterior margin slightly concave, the posterior margin convex and with a small rounded basal lobe. There is no post-calcarial lobe and the extreme tip of the tail is free of the membrane.

The skull has an elongate, uninflated braincase, relatively wide unconstricted interorbital region and slight sagittal crest. The rostrum is low and narrow anteriorly, with shallow median frontal sulcus and short, U-shaped anterior narial emargination. The large anteorbital forearm is separated from the orbit by a moderate bar of bone with a small upper subsidiary foramen within the orbit. The palate is sharply domed, narrowed anteriorly, with U-shaped anterior emargination and wide ligulate post-palatal spine. The inner upper incisor (i²) is large, slightly longer than wide, with large anterior cusp and lower posterior cusp: i³ is wider than long, transverse to the toothrow, with a heavy cusp rising from a narrow cingulum and separated from the canine by a narrow diastema. Lower incisors with no especial peculiarities, canines low, c¹ about the same height as pm⁴, c₁ similarly about the same height from the cingulum as pm₄. Anterior upper premolar (pm²) large, in toothrow, touching c¹ and pm⁴: pm₂ not reduced or displaced, in contact with c₁ and pm₄. No trace of pm³₃ in either jaw. The specimen agrees precisely with the diagnosis by Dobson of P. annectans, which it obviously represents.

A direct comparison with the holotype and other material of Myotis primula

Thomas, 1920 shows exact agreement in almost every respect. The ears in *primula* are not translucent distally as they are in the Chiangmai specimen which is very slightly more orange ventrally than *primula* but in every other external feature there is complete correspondence. The skulls and teeth agree precisely excepting only for the presence of a minute pm_3^3 in *primula*: its degree of intrusion, however, varies in the specimens examined and although in the holotype (B.M.16.3.25.30) the anterior (pm_2^2) and posterior (pm_4^4) premolars do not touch, in two others (B.M.20.7.27.2-3) these teeth are in contact or nearly so. There can be no doubt that *annectans* is in fact *primula* in which these teeth have never appeared: the ears and tragus of *annectans* and *primula* refer the taxon which they represent indubitably to *Myotis*, as Topal has concluded. Measurements of *M. annectans* from Chiangmai are compared with those of *M. primula* in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Measurements of Myotis annectans

		'M. primula' 3		
	M. annectans ?	Holotype	'M. primula' 3	'M. primula' Q
	Chiangmai,	B.M.16.3.25.30	B.M.20.7.27.2	B.M.20.7.27.3
	Thailand	Assam	Assam	Assam
Length of forearm	43°3	47.0	46.5	45.2
Greatest length of skull	17.0	17.3	16.7	_
Condylobasal length	16.4	16.7	15.9	
Condylocanine length	15.3	15.6	14.9	_
Least interorbital width	4.2	4*3	4°3	4.2
Zygomatic width	11.2	11.5		
Braincase width	8.0	8.4	8.6	7.8
Mastoid width	8.8	8.6	8.5	8.4
c1-c1	4.2	4.8	4.8	4.6
m³-m³	7.6	7.3	7-4	7.2
c-m ³	6.7	6.9	6.6	6.7
Length of mandible	12.3	12.7		
c-m ₃	7.3	7:3	7.1	7'2

Myotis siligorensis thaianus Shamel, 1942

THAILAND: Tham Tab Tao, Fang, Chiangmai. 255. Thai National Reference Collection.

These are apparently the first of M.s. thaianus to be reported since its description from Chiangmai by Shamel (1942: 323). Measurements: length of forearm 31·7, 31·9; greatest length of skull 12·8, 12·7; condylobasal length 11·8, -; condylocanine length 11·1, -; least interorbital width 2·8, 2·9; zygomatic width 7·0; -; braincase width 5·8, 6·0; mastoid width 6·4, 6·6; depth of braincase 4·7, -; c¹-c¹ 3·0, 3·0; m^3-m^3 4·6, 4·7; length of entire toothrow 5·4, 5·3; c- m^3 4·5, 4·4; length of mandible 8·4, 8·6; c- m_3 4·9, 4·8.

Pipistrellus cadornae Thomas, 1916

THAILAND: Petchabun, Thung Salang, Luang, 450 metres. I J. Thai National Reference Collection.

The first of this species to be reported from Thailand, this specimen is in excellent agreement with the holotype and with those reported from Upper Burma by Hill (1962:133). Measurements: length of forearm 33·2, greatest length of skull 13·6; condylobasal length 12·9, condylocanine length 12·6; least inteorbital width 3·7, width of braincase 6·7; mastoid width 7·5; c¹-c¹ 4·5, m³-m³ 5·7 c-m³ 4·5; c-m₃ 4·7.

Hesperoptenus tickelli (Blyth, 1851)

THAILAND: Nakhon Rat Sima (= Khorat). 1 \, \text{.}

Hesperoptenus tickelli has been recorded hitherto from no further east than Bengal on the Asian mainland and from the Andaman Islands so that its presence in eastern Thailand represents a considerable extension of range. In colour this specimen agrees more closely with Indian examples than with specimens from Ceylon and the Andaman Islands, which are very slightly darker dorsally, especially on the hindback. Measurements: length of forearm 52·3; greatest length of skull 18·5; condylobasal length 18·3; least interorbital width 5·0; zygomatic width 14·1; width of braincase 9·9; mastoid width 11·1; c¹-c¹ 6·3; m³-m³ 9·2; c-m³ 7·4; length of mandible 14·1; c-m₃ 8·0.

Hesperoptenus blanfordi (Dobson, 1877)

Thailand: Khao Luang, Nakhon Si Thamrat, 450 feet. 8°26′ N., 99°58′ E. 1 3. This rare species has been recorded once previously from Thailand, by Robinson and Kloss (1915b: 116), who listed a specimen from Khao Nawng, Bandon. Measurements of the specimen from Khao Luang: length of forearm 25.8, greatest length of skull 12.2; condylobasal length 11.6; least interorbital width 4.3; zygomatic width -; width of braincase 7.0; mastoid width 7.2; c¹-c¹ -; m³-m³ 6.2; c-m³ 3.9; length of mandible 8.4; c-m³ -.

Scotophilus kuhlii gairdneri Kloss, 1917

Thailand: Koh Klet, Pak Klet, Nonburi, 11 miles north of Bangkok. 1 Q. There is some uncertainty in the literature as to the correct classification of Asian Scotophilus, but there are, however, several partial studies of the Asian species. Briefly discussed by Sody (1928: 86), the Asian forms were reviewed in some detail by Tate (1942: 283) while Shamel (1942: 325) provided a succinct examination of specimens in the United States National Museum which has remained largely overlooked by subsequent authors More recently, Siddiqi (1961) reviewed the Indian and some southeast Asian forms, while Peterson (1968) has reviewed the outstanding problems in the genus so far as southeastern Asia is concerned

The consensus of opinion is that two species should be recognized, a larger and a smaller, sympatric in some places (excluding the very large Scotomanes (Parascotomanes) beaulieui Bourret, 1942 from North Vietnam, listed in Scotophilus by

Ellerman and Morrison-Scott, 1951: 180 but considered synonymous with *Ia io* by Topal, 1970b: 342). Tate, Shamel and Siddiqi assign smaller specimens to *Scotophilus temminckii* Horsfield, 1824: larger specimens are referred to *S. heathi* Horsfield, 1831 by Tate and Siddiqi and to *S. kuhlii* Leach, 1822 by Shamel. Examination of specimens in the British Museum (Natural History) confirms this division into two size groups.

A major difficulty arises in the allocation of names to these groups through the uncertain status of Scotophilus kuhlii Leach, 1822, the type species of Scotophilus, neither its specific identity nor its locality having been satisfactorily established. The name was considered indeterminable by Sody. Tate (who suggested a further study of the type specimen) and Siddiqi: over the years it has been used both for the smaller and the larger species. However, Peters (1867b: 679) thought the juvenile type specimen to be an example of S. temminckii (Horsfield, 1824), a conclusion reiterated by Dobson (1875: 368) and by Blanford (1888: 267), who also noted that an examination of the specimen by Thomas showed its upper incisors to be like those of temminckii. The type specimen was re-examined recently at the request of Dr. R. L. Peterson, of the Royal Ontario Museum, who has published in part (1968: 1081) the results of this survey. In brief, the holotype consists of a skull and specimen in alcohol, labelled India. It is a very young individual, the third upper molar just piercing the gum, with the two tricuspid milk incisors still present on each side of the jaw. On the right the unicuspid permanent incisor is emergent alongside the inner of these: on the left the permanent tooth has been lost from the damaged socket, only the two milk incisors remaining. Specimens of similar age in the collections of the British Museum (Natural History) are very like this, and the holotype seems at one of the normal stages of dental development in the genus. The dimensions of the teeth indicate that it represents the smaller of the two Asiatic species under consideration. The available evidence suggests that it originated from India: the name kuhlii should therefore replace temminckii for the smaller species, while wroughtoni Thomas, 1897, hitherto considered the Indian subspecies, will become a synonym of S.k. kuhlii. Siddigi (1961: 452 listed castaneus Gray, 1838 from West Bengal, East Pakistan to southwestern China and the Malay Peninsula. This author, however, did not examine gairdneri Kloss, 1917 from Thailand. Subspecies allocated to kuhlii are listed in full by Tate (1942: 285) and Shamel (1942: 327); for the present gairdneri is retained for Siamese and Cambodian specimens on account of their slightly darker dorsal coloration when compared with Indian specimens (kuhlii): castaneus from the Malay Peninsula is dorsally similar to gairdneri but is darker ventrally. There is a wide degree of individual colour variation, however, and these differences are small; at best it seems that the subspecies are only weakly separable. Length of forearm (eight specimens) 49·1-51·2 (50·3).

Scotophilus heathi (?) watkinsi Sanborn, 1952

Thailand: Bang Phra, Siracha, Chonburi, 13° 12′ N., 100° 57′ E. I J. Koh Klet Pak Klet, Nonburi, 11 miles north of Bangkok. I Ç. Bangkok. I sex uncertain (skull only).

The collections of the British Museum (Natural History) include extensive series of *S. heathi* from Indian and Burmese localities (listed by Wroughton (1918a: 594) as *S. kuhlii*) but the representation from Thailand and Indochina is very much poorer. As in *S. kuhlii*, there is considerable individual colour variation and for the present no attempt has been made to determine subspecific boundaries.

These specimens are similar in size to those from Pak Nam Pho, Nakon Sawan Province, central Thailand described as S. solutatus watkinsi by Sanborn (1952: 4) to which they are provisionally referred. The description and measurements lead this to be allocated to S. heathi, and it may represent a valid subspecies in Thailand.

Measurements (3, φ , sex uncertain): length of forearm $61\cdot2$, $61\cdot4$, -; greatest length of skull $22\cdot6$, $22\cdot5$, $22\cdot0$; condylobasal length $20\cdot8$, $20\cdot9$, $20\cdot3$; palatal length $7\cdot7$, $7\cdot8$, $7\cdot6$; rostral width between anteorbital foramina $8\cdot3$, $8\cdot3$, $7\cdot9$; least interorbital width $5\cdot4$, $5\cdot3$, $5\cdot3$; zygomatic width $16\cdot4$, $16\cdot5$, $15\cdot9$; mastoid width $14\cdot2$, $14\cdot4$, $13\cdot8$; braincase width $10\cdot6$, $10\cdot7$, $10\cdot2$; c^1-c^1 $7\cdot6$, $7\cdot7$, $7\cdot4$; m^3-m^3 $10\cdot3$, $10\cdot2$, $9\cdot8$; $c-m^3$ $7\cdot6$, $7\cdot7$, $7\cdot5$; length of mandible $15\cdot5$, $16\cdot0$, $15\cdot3$; $c-m_3$ $8\cdot8$, $8\cdot9$, $8\cdot7$.

Murina cyclotis cyclotis Dobson, 1872

THAILAND: Tham Tab Tao, Fang, Chiangmai. 1 & (young adult).

The genus Murina was recorded from Thailand by Shamel (1942: 327) who identified two specimens from the northern part of the country as M. toxopei Thomas, 1923 (= M. $florium\ toxopei$) known otherwise from the island of Buru, in the Moluccas. This specimen from Chiangmai is quite clearly referable to M. $cyclotis\ cyclotis\ as$ it is described by Hill (1963: 53), agreeing closely with specimens in the British Museum (Natural History) from northern Burma. It is probable that the specimens described and measured by Shamel also represent $M.c.\ cyclotis\$ with which from the account they agree in most respects.

Tadarida plicata plicata (Buchanan, 1800)

THAILAND: Phu Nam Tok Tap Kwang, Kaeng Khoi, Sara Buri, c. 14° 42′ N., 100° 52′ E. 1 3.

CAMBODIA: Angkor Wath, Siem Reap, Cambodia. 1 Q.

Tonle, 25 kilometres southeast of Phnom Penh, Cambodia. 13,5 22.

Yoshiyuki (1966: 40) reported *T.p. plicata* for the first time from Cambodia. Length of forearm in the Thai example 47.7; in specimens from Cambodia 46.9-49.0 (48.0).

SUMMARY

Collections of bats from Thailand and Cambodia examined recently at the British Museum (Natural History) have included a number of species new to these countries or of taxonomic significance. Megaerops ecaudatus, Chironax melanocephalus, Myotis annectans, Pipistrellus cadornae and Hesperoptenus tickelli are reported for the first time from Thailand, together with Pteropus hypomelanus from the islet of Koh Som in the South China Sea. The first specimens of Taphozous longimanus

longimanus, Rhinolophus borneensis and R. acuminatus from Cambodia are recorded, with further examples of Tadarida plicata plicata, known hitherto in that country from one reported occurrence. Further specimens reported of species poorly known from Thailand include Rousettus amplexicaudatus, R. leschenaulti leschenaulti, Sphaerias blanfordi, Macroglossus minimus sobrinus, Taphozous theobaldi theobaldi, Rhinolophus malayanus, R. acuminatus, Coelops frithii, Myotis hasseltii continentis, M. siligorensis thaianus, Hesperoptenus blanfordi and Murina cyclotis cyclotis. An examination of Cynopterus angulatus Miller, 1908 shows it to be a subspecies of C. sphinx rather than of C. brachyotis. Further specimens of Rhinolophus coelophyllus shameli Tate, 1942 indicate that shameli is specifically distinct from R. coelophyllus. R. chaseni Sanborn, 1939 is thought to be a subspecies of R. borneensis. Largefooted Myotis of southeastern Asia are discussed and continentis Shamel, 1942 thought to be a subspecies of M. hasseltii rather than of M. adversus as it was described. A specimen referable to Pipistrellus annectans Dobson, 1871 confirms the view that this taxon should be referred to Myotis and that M. primula Thomas, 1020 is its synonym. The holotype of Scotophilus kuhlii Leach, 1822 has been examined and this name applied to the smallest of the Asiatic species of Scotophilus, formerly referred to S. temminckii (Horsfield, 1824).

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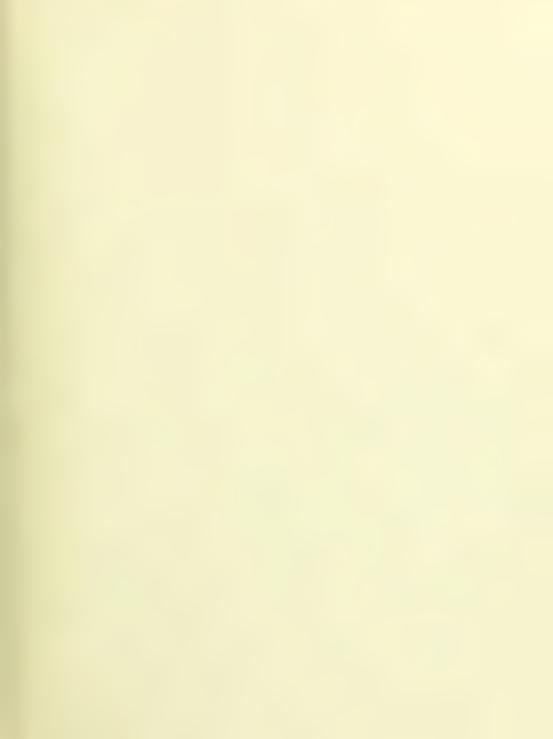
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A REDESCRIPTION OF SPELAEOMYSIS SERVATUS (FAGE) COMB. NOV.

(MYSIDACEA: LEPIDOMYSIDAE)
FROM THE MATERIAL COLLECTED
ON ALDABRA ATOLL,

WITH A KEY
TO THE SPECIES OF LEPIDOMYSIDAE



R. W. INGLE

BULLETIN OF
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TRUSTEES OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

A REDESCRIPTION OF SPELAEOMYSIS SERVATUS (FAGE) COMB. NOV.

(MYSIDACEA: LEPIDOMYSIDAE) FROM THE MATERIAL COLLECTED ON ALDABRA ATOLL,

WITH A KEY TO THE SPECIES OF LEPIDOMYSIDAE

By R. W. INGLE

SYNOPSIS

The crustacean Spelaeomysis servatus (Fage) is redescribed from specimens collected on Aldabra Atoll. The species has been transferred from the genus Lepidomysis Clarke. A key is provided for the identification of the known species in the genus Spelaeomysis.

INTRODUCTION

Among the crustaceans collected by Dr. K. G. McKenzie during phase III of the Royal Society of London Expedition to Aldabra (see McKenzie, 1971), were a number of mysidaceans that agree substantially with the descriptions and figures by Fage (1924, 1925) of a species designated by him as Lepidophthalmus servatus. For nomenclatorial reasons the generic name used by Fage was replaced by Lepidops (Zimmer, 1927) and later by Lepidomysis (Clarke, 1961). The type material of this species is from S. Zanzibar, E. Africa. As far as I am aware this material from Aldabra constitutes the second occurrence of this species and extends its range some 400 miles south eastward of the type locality.

Unlike the type material, these Aldabran specimens are well preserved. Adults and juveniles of both sexes are represented, although there are no ovigerous females in the sample. The opportunity has been taken, therefore, to redescribe the species from this fresh material and to compare it with the other known species of Lepidomysidae, Spelaeomysis bottazzii Caroli, 1924, S. quinterensis (Villalobos, 1951), and S. longipes Pillai and Mariamma, 1964. These comparisons have shown that Lepidomysis cannot be retained as a separate genus and that L. servatus, the only species in the genus, must be transferred to Spelaeomysis. The reasons for this decision are discussed on p. 207. The definition of the genus Spelaeomysis is amended slightly and a key is provided to separate the species belonging to this genus.

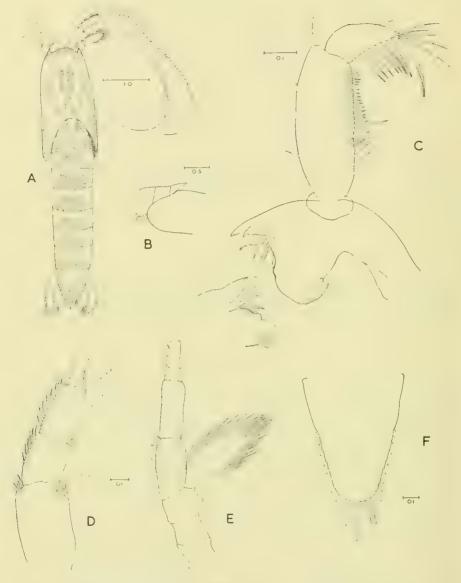


Fig. 1. Spelaeomysis servatus (Fage). Male, 5.5 mm, t.l. Aldabra Atoll. A. Dorsal view showing chromatophore pattern, thoracic limbs omitted. B. Lateral view showing projecting scale of penultimate thoracic segment. C. Left mandible, ventral aspect, lower inset—distal portion of right mandible. D. Right antennule, peduncle and proximal flagella segments, ventral aspect. E. Left antenna, peduncle and proximal flagellum segments, ventral aspect. F. Telson, dorsal aspect. Scales in mm.

SYSTEMATICS

Family LEPIDOMYSIDAE Clarke, 1961: 251

Spelaeomysis servatus (Fage) comb. nov.

Lepidophthalmus servatus Fage, 1924: 2127; 1925: 525, figs 1-7. Lepidops servatus; Zimmer, 1927: 644; Gordon, 1960: 299, 308, figs 20, 21, 27, 28. Lepidomysis servatus; Clarke, 1961: 251.

MATERIAL EXAMINED. 20 33, 3·0–5·5 mm, 17 \$\partial \text{\text{Q}}\$, 4·0–6·0 mm, (total lengths measured from distal margins of eyes to distal margins of telsons). Station 30, Aldabra Atoll, Indian Ocean, lat. 9° 24′ S., long. 46° 20′ E, local coordinates used by Royal Soc. Exped. 3755, 0525. Tide-dominated saline seepage pool in *Pemphis* scrub. Salinity 23·5°/00. Associated fauna: *Cirolana sp.* marine molluscs, marine alga *Caulerpa verticillata*. Collected by Dr. K. G. McKenzie, 1.2.1968.

DESCRIPTION. Male (fig. 1A), body sub-cylindrical, carapace lateral margins strongly deflected ventrally, posterior expansions reaching to middle of first abdominal segment, antero-lateral expansions extending beyond rostral apex, rostrum broadly rounded. Carapace with a pair of faint longitudinal grooves, extending forward from posterior margin of carapace to its middle and then strongly deflected ventrally. Last two thoracic segments dorsally exposed, penultimate segment with a well developed scale overlapping the postero-median carapace margin and shown in lateral aspect in fig. 1B. Outline of thoracic and abdominal segments continuous. First abdominal segment shortest, sixth segment longest. Postero-ventral margins of segments 3-5 each with a single broad lamella arising between the pleopod bases and increasing in size respectively on each segment. Telson (fig. 1F) linguiform, posterior margin with a long median spine flanked on either side by one short and two long spines; lateral margins unarmed proximally, but with a row of 9 or 10 spines in the distal two thirds, increasing in length posteriorly. Each eyestalk (eve-plate) flattened dorso-ventrally and sub-triangular, narrowing anteriorly with inner margin curved, the cornea well developed. Antennule (fig. 1D), first peduncular segment longer than second segment, third sub-equal to second, inner flagellum reaching to middle of third abdominal segment, outer flagellum slightly shorter than inner one and with aesthetascs on inner margins of segments, decreasing in length distally. Antenna (fig. 1E), sympod three-segmented, first to third segments incompletely separated, third segment with a sub-acute process on outer distal margin. Exopod (scale) sub-oval, about half as long again as first segment of endopod peduncle, whole margin of scale setosed except near base. Peduncle of endopod formed of two sub-equal segments, flagellum reaching to second abdominal segment. Labrum outline shown in fig. 2D. Left mandible (fig. 1C), with a strongly bifid incisor process, each bifurcation faintly dentate, lacinia mobilis prominent and dentate, four penicils (spines) present, molar process truncate. Right mandible with lacinia mobilis bifid (inset to fig. 1C), and with molar process differing in shape from that of left mandible. Palp stout and three-segmented, first segment short, second longest and with pectinate and simple setae, distal segment narrowest and with long pectinate and simple setae. Maxillule (fig. 2B), proximal endite with five setae (three distal and two proximal) and four weakly

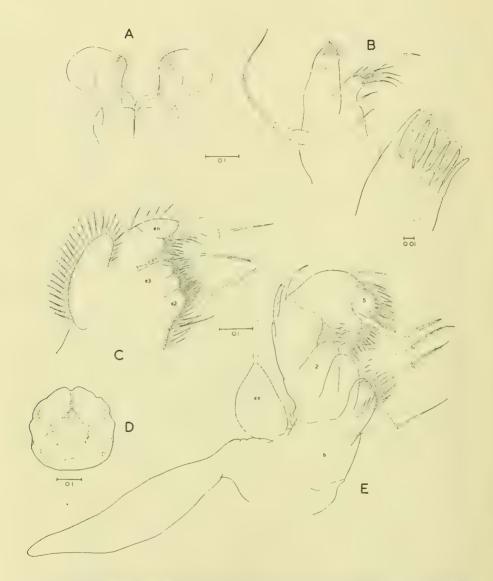


Fig. 2. Spelaeomysis servatus (Fage). Male, 5·5 mm. t.l. Aldabra Atoll. A. Labium.
B. Right maxillule, right inset – distal portion of major lobe. C. Right maxilla.
D. Labrum. E. First right thoracic limb. All from ventral aspect. Scales in mm.

pectinate long spines distally. Distal endite with three subterminal setae, fourteen or fifteen strong spines (some pectinate) and one or two simple setae. Maxilla (fig. 2C), exopod oval and with twenty nine or thirty long plumose setae, distal lobe well developed, proximal lobe undifferentiated, distal endopod segment (en) smaller than proximal segment, latter with a slightly expanded inner margin, endite of second segment (e2) of sympod and bifid endite of third segment (e3) well developed. Maxilla with simple and pectinate setae of types shown in insets to fig. 2C. Labium (fig. 2A), symmetrical and deeply cleft, inner margins of each lobe setose. First thoracic limb (fig. 2E), with coxa not clearly demarcated from basis (b), inner margin of basis expanded. First, second (2) and fourth endopod segments with inner margins expanded, fifth (5) segment truncate. Inner margin of fourth segment invested with a row of stout pectinate setae. Outer distal margin of third segment with three long spines, remaining segments of endopod with plumose or with simple setae as shown in figure. Exopod (ex) reduced to a lanceolate scale bearing two terminal setae and a row of fine short hair-like setae on both margins, epipod long. Second thoracic limb (fig. 3A), coxa demarcated from basis, first endopod segment almost as long as second segment, third segment longest, fourth longer than fifth. Inner margins of third to fifth segments with stout pectinate and plumose setae. Exopod well developed and nine-segmented, basal segment longest, seven distal segments each with a pair of plumose setae. Third, fourth, fifth and sixth thoracic limbs all similar in shape. Fifth limb (fig. 3B), with coxa not differentiated from basis, length of first endopod segment about one third the length of second segment, third segment about two and a half times length of second, fourth slightly shorter than third, claw about one fifth length of fifth segment. Exopod long, basal segment longest, ten distal segments (not shown in figure) each with a pair of long plumose setae. Seventh thoracic limb (fig. 3C) with coxa not differentiated from basis. First endopod segment slightly shorter than second (2), third almost three and a half times length of second, fourth slightly longer than third and with an outer proximal row of six pectinate setae, fifth segment about two thirds length of fourth, claw about half the length of fifth segment. Exopod slightly shorter than those on preceding limbs. Eighth thoracic limb (fig. 3D), with coxa slightly differentiated from basis. Coxal segment with inner broad setose penial lobe. First and second endopod segments equal in length, third segment about three and a half times the length of second, fourth much longer than third and with outer proximal row of seven and inner distal row of three pectinate setae, fifth segment shorter than fourth, inner margin with a row of fifteen long pectinate setae, claw almost half length of fifth segment. Exopod with distal segments not clearly differentiated.

First to fifth pleopods biramous and invested with plumose setae. Endopod one-segmented and increasing in length progressively from first to fifth pleopods. Exopods of pleopods three-segmented with first segment shortest. First pleopod (Fig. 4A) with second and third segments of exopods equal in length, second segment with a small longitudinal setose ridge on inner ventral surface. Second pleopod (fig. 4B), with second exopod segment longest and broadly expanded, inner margin with a proximal row of graded setae and a distal row of retinaculae; a ventral

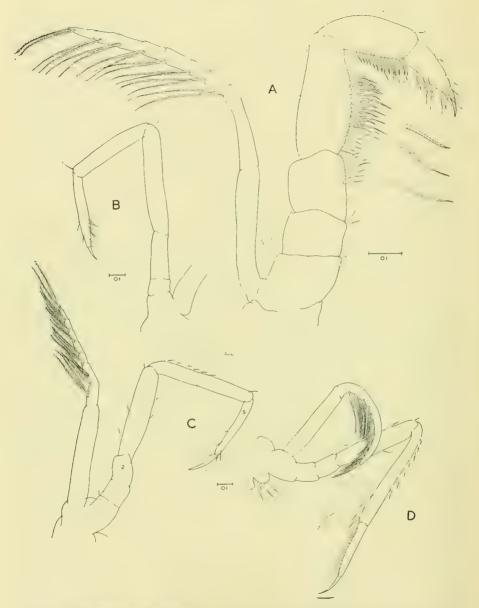


Fig. 3. Spelaeomysis servatus (Fage). Male, 5·5 mm, t.l. Aldabra Atoll. A. B. C. D. Second, fifth, seventh, eighth right thoracic limbs respectively, ventral aspects. Scales in mm.

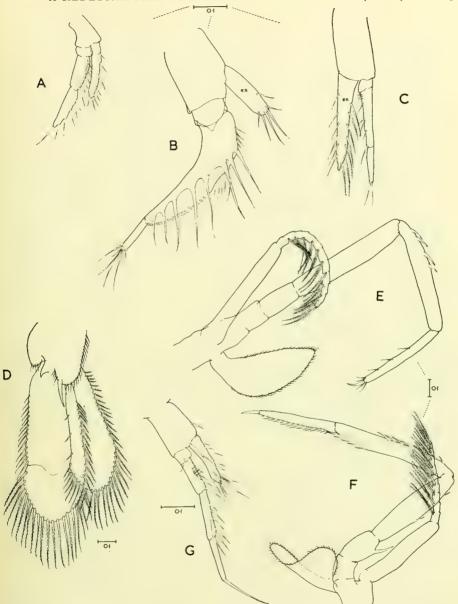


Fig. 4. Spelaeomysis servatus (Fage). Aldabra Atoll. Male 5.5 mm, t.l. A. B. C. First, second, third right pleopods respectively. D. Right uropod. Female 6 mm, t.l. E. F. Seventh and eighth thoracic limbs respectively. G. Second right pleopod. All ventral aspects. Scales in mm.

oblique sinuous ridge arising from ventral surface of second segment invested with long setae. Pleopods three (Fig. 4C) to five similar in shape. Uropods longer than telson, ventral distal margin of sympod prolonged backwards and shaped as depicted in fig. 4D and with a long curved spine. Inner margin with short setae. Exopod with distal transverse suture, endopod one-segmented. Outer exopod margin, proximal to suture, with a graded row of non-plumose setae, rest of exopod margin with plumose setae. Endopod outer and distal margins invested with plumose setae.

Female. The female differs from the male in the following features. (1) Second to eighth thoracic limbs each bear an oostegite arising from inner surface of coxa (figs. 4, E,F), and increasing in size posteriorly. (2) Seventh thoracic limb (fig. 4E), with first endopod segment much shorter than second, third segment slightly less than three times length of second, fourth slightly shorter than third and with outer proximal row of four prominent pectinate setae, fifth segment about three-quarters length of fourth, claw about one fifth length of fifth segment. (3) Eighth thoracic limb (fig. 4F), with first endopod segment shorter than second, third about two and a half times the length of second, fourth with eight pectinate setae on outer proximal margin and five pectinate setae on inner distal margin, (shorter than those of male), claw slightly less than a quarter length of fifth segment. (4) Second pleopod (fig. 4G), with a four-segmented exopod second segment shorter than either third or fourth, fourth invested with a long stout setae.

Juveniles. The smallest specimens (\Im 3 mm, \Im 4 mm), have the proportions of the segments of thoracic limbs similar to those described for the adult male. In particular, the claws of thoracic limbs seven and eight are nearly half the length of segment five of these respective limbs. Compared with the adults, juveniles have about half the number of setae on the fourth segment of thoracic limbs seven and eight, and in juvenile females only half the adult number of setae are present on the fifth segment of limb eight. The telson spines of juveniles are longer. The median spine is more than one third the telson length, whilst in adults it is less than one third of the length.

REMARKS. The specimens of Spelaeomysis servatus from Aldabra, the original descriptions of the species by Fage (1924, 1925), and four specimens (3 PP and 1 d) of the type series examined, all agree, except in the following features. (1) The eyestalks of the Aldabran specimens and of the four types are subquadrate, but do not have the inner distal margins acutely sloping as depicted by Fage (1925, fig. II). (2) The dorsal surfaces of segments two and three of the antennal sympod of the Aldabran and type specimens are not invested with setae as shown by Fage in his fig. III. (3) The structure of the male's second pleopod of the Aldabran material and of the type specimen examined does not agree with the figure of this appendage given by Fage in his fig. IV. This difference may be due to an abnormal flattening of his material after mounting as a micro-preparation. (4) Fage figures very short telson spines (his fig. VII), the median spines measuring only about one sixth of the telson length. These spines on the Aldabran and the type specimens examined measure about one third of the telson length.

DISCUSSION. Spelaeomysis servatus was first collected in the surface lake water of a coralline grotto on Zanzibar Island, E. Africa (see Allaud & Jeannel, 1914: 381). The specimens from Aldabra Atoll are from a limestone seepage pool and were also collected near the surface of the water during a flowing tide (personal communication from Dr. K. G. McKenzie). Both habitats are similar and of the type in which members of the hypogean fauna are often found. Although the Aldabran specimens were taken from an exposed pool, it seems unlikely that this is their normal habitat. It is possible that they were carried into this surface pool by the upwelling of water caused by the incoming tide passing through the subterranean limestone interstices. Whether, on Aldabra, this mysid inhabits hypogean water that is cut off from the surrounding sea (and is of a lower salinity), or whether it is a true marine subterranean dweller, remains to be investigated. At present there is little information available about the biotopes of the other species of Spelaeomysis.

Gordon (1960: 308) defined the family Lepidopidae (now Lepidomysidae). This family contains two genera at present, Lepidomysis Clarke, (1961) and Spelaeomysis Caroli, (1924). The genus Spelaeomysis was redefined by Pillai & Mariamma, (1964: 223) and all the features listed in their definition, except for "eye-plates without visual elements", are present in material examined of L. servatus. The presence or absence of visual elements does not constitute a valid generic character, as in the Mysidacea these elements can be developed, reduced or can be absent in different species within the same genus (Pillai & Mariamma, 1964: 119). There is no justification, therefore, for maintaining two genera in the family Lepidomysidae, and the species Lepidomysis servatus is now transferred to the genus Spelaeomvsis Caroli. This last generic name has precedence over Lepidomysis Clarke, 1961. The family Lepidomysidae and the genus Spelaeomysis can now be defined as follows: Body depressed or sub-cylindrical. Carapace produced antero-laterally into two rounded lobes and postero-laterally into large wings. Last two thoracic segments dorsally exposed, penultimate segment with anteriorly directed dorsal scale overlapping postero-median margin of carapace. Sixth abdominal segment slightly longer than fifth. Telson triangular or linguiform with margins partly or completely spinose. One or two eve-plates with or without visual elements. Labium with lobes well separated. Mandible with well developed incisor and molar processes; palp large and with robust pectinate spines on outer margin of second and third segments. Maxillule with a two-segmented reflexed palp bearing a long distal seta. Maxilla with inner margin of endopod segment expanded. Endopod of first thoracic limb with well developed endites, exopod reduced to a small unsegmented scale, epipod large. Endopod of second thoracic limb stout, exopod long and segmented. Thoracic limbs three to eight sub-equal or eighth very long. Coxa of eighth limb of male with penial lobe (?absent in S. bottazzii). Coxae of second to eighth thoracic limbs of female with oostegites. Pleopods alike in both sexes, except for sexual dimorphism of second pair, increasing in size from first to fifth pair, biramous, with one segmented-endoped and three-segmented exoped (four-segmented on second pair in female). Chitinous lamellae on postero-ventral margins of abdominal segments three to five. Uropod with a backward prolongation of sympod, exopod with a lateral suture (very faint in S. bottazzii), endopod without statocyst.

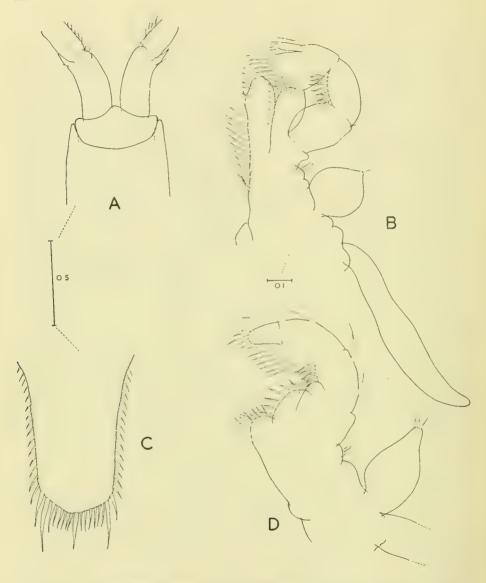


Fig. 5. A. Spelaeomysis longipes Pillai & Mariamma. Male, 5.6 mm, t.l. paratype, Kottayam, Kerala, India. Anterior portion of carapace, eye-plate and peduncular segments of antenna, dorsal aspect. B. Spelaeomysis quinterensis (Villalobos) male 7.5 mm, t.l. paratype, Gruta de Quintero, Mexico. First left thoracic limb, dorsal aspect. Spelaeomysis bottazzii Caroli, female 10.0 mm, t.l. Terra d'Otranto, Italy. C. Telson, dorsal aspect. D. First left thoracic limb, dorsal aspect. Scales in mm.

3

5

KEY TO DETERMINATION OF THE SPECIES OF THE GENUS SPELAEOMYSIS CAROLI

- I (2) A pair of eye-plates present (fig. 1A). Antennule, basal segment, outer distal

Spelaeomysis longipes Pillai & Mariamma (Kerala)

First thoracic limb (fig. 2E), fifth segment (5) stout, length equal to or slightly exceeding breadth, inner margins of basis (b) and of endopod first segment expanded as broad endites

4 (3) First thoracic limb (fig. 5B), fifth segment slender, length greater than breadth, inner margins of basis and that of endopod first segment expanded as narrow endites.

Spelaeomysis quinterensis (Villalobos) (Yucatan)

5 (6) Distal two thirds of telson margin with spines, apex rounded (fig. 1F). Eyeplates with visual elements (fig. 1A). First thoracic limb (fig. 2E), fifth segment (5), length equal to breadth, fourth segment inner margin with strongly produced endite. Spelaeomysis servatus (Fage) (Zanzibar, Aldabra)

6 (5) Whole of telson margin with spines, apex sub-acute (fig. 5C). Eye-plates without visual elements. First thoracic limb, fifth segment, length exceeding breadth (fig. 5D), fourth segment with inner margin not strongly produced.

Spelaeomysis bottazzii Caroli (Otranto)

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RECENT RECORDS OF MAMMALS (OTHER THAN BATS) FROM ETHIOPIA



G. B. CORBET

AND

D. W. YALDEN

BULLETIN OF
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BY

GORDON BARCLAY CORBET

AND

DEREK WILLIAM YALDEN

University of Manchester



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TRUSTEES OF
THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

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By G. B. CORBET & D. W. YALDEN

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SYNOPSIS

Recent expeditions to Ethiopia collected about 400 mammal specimens for the British Museum (Natural History), and these are identified and discussed. Four species are apparently new to Ethiopia, the shrews Crocidura niobe and Suncus etruscus, the murid Arvicanthis somalicus, and the cane rat Thryonomys gregorianus. In addition, there are several species that have been reported from Ethiopia only rarely, including Tachyorycles macrocephalus, Taterillus emini, Lemniscomys striatus, Praomys fumatus and Proteles cristatus.

The peculiar zoogeographic relationships of the Ethiopian (i.e. Abyssinian) fauna are discussed in the light of these and previously published records. While an exhaustive examination of the mammalian fauna is not yet possible, it is evident that parallels exist with the better known avian and lepidopteran faunas.

INTRODUCTION

The mammals of Ethiopia are relatively poorly known, and there has never been any comprehensive published account. Many East African species were first described from Ethiopian material, e.g. by Cretzschmar (1826) and Heuglin (1877), but these collections came mainly from the coast of the Red Sea. The main collections from Ethiopia in the British Museum are those made by P. Zaphiro in 1905, especially in

the southern half of the country, and by Major R. E. Cheesman about 1926 to 1932, mainly in the central highlands, but neither of these were reported upon except to describe individual novelties, e.g. by Thomas (1928). De Beaux (1925, 1943) added further records, and recently Ingersol (1968) has collected the mammals of the Harar area. Blower (1968) has given a more general account of the wildlife of

Ethiopia.

In 1964 and 1966, adventure training expeditions from the Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst, collected mammals for the British Museum, principally in the region around Lakes Shamo and Abbaya in the Great Rift Valley, south of Addis Ababa (Anon., 1965, 1967). In 1968, the Great Abbai Expedition collected further specimens, particularly along the valley of the Blue Nile (=Great Abbai), and also more widely in central Ethiopia (Anon., 1970; Blashford-Snell, 1970). It is this last collection that forms the main basis for this paper, but relevant information from the other collections is included. D.W.Y. was a member of the Great Abbai Expedition and is responsible for the reports of field observations. G.B.C. identified the collection and supplied the taxonomic notes.

The Chiroptera are not included here, as they have been considered separately by Hill and Morris (1971).

COLLECTING LOCALITIES

Localities in Ethiopia are frequently difficult to trace, sometimes because of changes of name, but also due to the phonetic rendering of native names in different European languages (English, French, German and Italian, at least). The main localities (and alternative names) are therefore given here with geographical coordinates, altitude, and the dates of collecting at each. The co-ordinates were taken from the 1:100000 scale world maps, series GSGS 4646, sheets NC36, 37 and 38, although in some instances there were apparent discrepancies between these maps and astrofixes taken in 1968. In the absence of a botanist on the expeditions, ecological notes are necessarily vague. Since some of the localities, at least, have been little investigated, it has seemed worthwhile to mention also the sight records of larger mammals.

The 1964 (Royal Military Academy) Expedition

The 1964 Sandhurst expedition collected about 40 mammals from two areas, one in the region of the Rift Valley Lakes, the other further north near Lake Tana.

Soddu, 6° 45′N, 37° 40′E, altitude 1500 m. Collecting here extended from 8–23 August 1964, and was carried out in the area south of Soddu toward the north shore of Lake Abbaya—specimens are referred in the taxonomic list to Soddu, in order to distinguish them from material collected in 1966. This area is in the rift valley and is rather dry, with some cultivated patches but much thick thorn scrub, isolated trees, and some rocky outcrops.

Little Abbai, 11° 20'N, 37° 00'E, altitude 2000 m. Collecting in the valley of the Little Abbai extended from 27th August to 5th September 1964. This area is on the main Ethiopian plateau, between the towns of Danghila and Bahar Dar, and

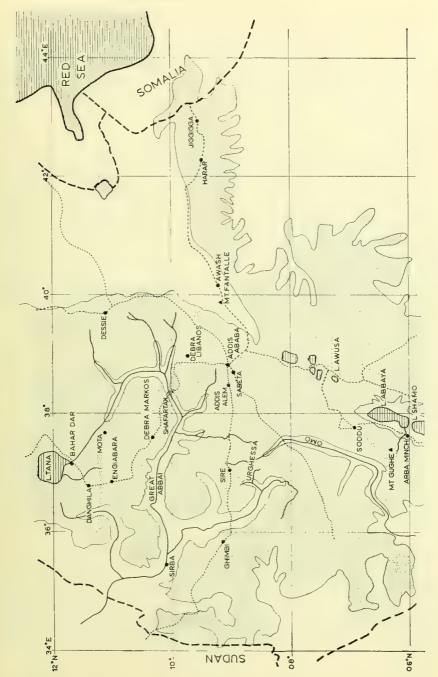


Fig. 1. Map of Ethiopia showing principal collecting localities. Ground over 1500 m is shaded.

south of Lake Tana. With the higher rainfall, rather more of the land is cultivated but there are also patches of scrub and some rocky outcrops.

The 1966 (Royal Military Academy) Expedition

The 1966 Sandhurst expedition collected about 90 mammals under the direction of Dr P. A. Morris from the Rift Valley Lakes region between 6th August and 3rd September 1966.

Lake Abbaya

Base camp was established at the S.W. corner of Lake Abbaya (=L. Margherita) near **Collufu River** at 6° 04′N, 37° 40′E, altitude 1500 m. **Arba Minch**, the provincial capital of Gemu Gofa, is 10 km west of the base camp site. There are small areas of cultivated land, but the dominant vegetation is thorn scrub. At the time of collecting, the area was extremely dry and dusty until the very end of the period when the rainy season began.

Darsi River flows into Lake Abbaya about 12 km north of the base camp. The lake shore region is very swampy, particularly at the mouth of the Darsi, and some

collecting was carried out in this region.

Some collecting was also carried out in the **Bonchie** (Bonghe) Valley, 6° 05′N, 37° 20′E, some 35 km west of the base camp, on the lower slopes of **Mount Gughe**, at about 2700 m. This is an area of riverine forest, with closed canopy, plentiful creepers, and sparse, though lush, ground cover, but with some cultivation.

Lake Shamo

Lake Shamo (=Chamo, Ciamo; also =L. Ruspoli) lies immediately south of Lake Abbaya in the Rift Valley. Some collecting was carried out in an area known colloquially as the 'White Grasses', east of the isthmus between the two lakes, at 5° 58'N, 37° 55'E, at an altitude of 1500 m. This is the area shown on the map by Blower (1968) as the proposed Lake Chand (a misprint for Chamo?) Game Reserve. It is an extensive rolling plain with stony soil and dry, white, grass sharply delimited from the surrounding thorn scrub and hillsides. Sight records here included herds or spot counts of 96 common zebra, Equus burchelli boehmi, 16+ waterbuck, Kobus defassa, 46+ Grant's gazelle, Gazella granti, 104 hartebeest, Alcelaphus buselaphus swaynei and 9+ warthog, Phacochoerus aethiopicus. The herd of A.b. swaynei is believed to be the largest herd known of this race which is on the verge of extinction (Simon, 1968).

The 1968 (Great Abbai) Expedition

This expedition was in the field during August and September 1968. The main object was a navigation of the Blue Nile (Great Abbai) from near its source at Lake Tana to a point near the border of Ethiopia and the Sudan. Most of the zoological collecting was therefore carried out in the Blue Nile Gorge, but specimens were also obtained near the various base camps established on the plateau, and elsewhere in Ethiopia.

The zoological team on the Great Abbai Expedition (Dr P. A. Morris, Dr M. J. Largen, Mr H. King and D.W.Y.) were responsible for most of the collecting including that in the Blue Nile Gorge, at Bahar Dar, Harar, and Awash. Collecting at Ghimbi, and much of that at Debra Markos, was undertaken by other members of the expedition. Most small mammals were collected with various types of breakback trap, of 'rat' and 'mouse' sizes, while a few were caught by hand or killed with dust shot. Larger mammals were shot at night. Hunting was unsuccessful in the Blue Nile Gorge, primarily because of the difficulty of moving about quietly on difficult terrain in the dark, but perhaps also due to a genuine scarcity of larger mammals. Elsewhere, such hunting was most productive. A general account of the progress and organization of the expedition is given by Blashford-Snell (1970), Snailham (1970) and Anon. (1970).

Debra Markos (Debre Markos)

The main base for the expedition was established beside the airfield at Debra Markos, the provincial capital of Gojjam, 10° 20'N, 37° 50'E, altitude 2500 m. Limited collecting was carried out here from 4–27 August 1968. This area is part of the main Ethiopian plateau, and is intensively farmed. Mostly the farmland is pasture for cattle and sheep, but there is also some arable farming. Very little native vegetation remains; the native trees have been replaced by introduced Eucalyptus sp., and there are no hedgerows, or even walls, between the fields, which are demarcated instead (if at all) by ditches. The airfield itself carried some low, overgrazed, Acacia scrub. No wild ungulates were seen, but spotted hyaenas, Crocuta crocuta, were common in and around the town. Two jackals, Canis aureus, were seen on the airstrip, and a burrow of aardvark, Orycteropus afer, was found. Among the rodents trapped in the area were Arvicanthis niloticus, Lophuromys flavopunctatus, Mus mahomet and Otomys typus.

A limited amount of collecting was also carried out along the main road which runs north-west from Debra Markos to Bahar Dar through **Engiabara** and **Danghila** (II° I5'N, 36° 55'E) and southeast to Shafartak Bridge through **Degen** (=Dejem, Gunghi) (I0° I0'N, 38° 05'E). The whole of this stretch of road runs along the Ethiopian plateau at around 2500 m, through similar pastoral country.

Blue Nile Gorge

The main collections in the Blue Nile gorge were made during stops on the journey by river from Shafartak road bridge westwards for about 400 km to a point near Sirba. Within this stretch of the river, a series of 'forward bases' (F.B.I, F.B.2, F.B.3) were established and most collecting was done at these, but some specimens were obtained at other, temporary, stops.

Shafartak Bridge (Bridge of Gojjam) 10° 06′N, 38° 17′E, altitude 1150 m.

Guder River, junction with the Blue Nile, 9° 50′N, 37° 41′E, altitude 1000 m. This was the location of Forward Base One (F.B.1), 85 km west of Shafartak. Collections were made from 8–11 August 1968. The gorge in this area, known collections

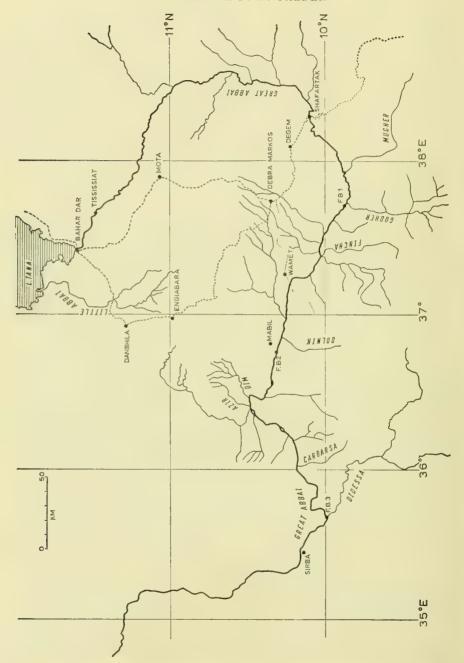


Fig. 2. Map of the Blue Nile showing localities studied during the Great Abbai Expedition.

loquially as the Black Gorge (Blashford-Snell, 1970), is extremely steep-sided, making progress either along or away from the river very difficult. The gorge is entirely uninhabited in this area, except for a Water Resources Board station about 2 km upstream on the Guder (whose flow it monitors). The vegetation consists of a small strip of riverine forest, only one to a few trees wide, and a dry semi-closed thorn scrub away from the rivers and water courses. At the time of collecting, the vegetation was all extremely green, but aerial reconnaissance during the previous dry season revealed a very difficult picture; then, there was only a thin strip of green riverine forest along the rivers, and brown vegetation behind, with the ground cover completely desiccated, and the thorn bushes leafless.

During the journey downstream from Shafartak to F.B.I, a single leopard, Panthera pardus, was seen beside the Blue Nile, and troops of olive baboons, Papio anubis, were seen, 6 km and 3 km east of the mouth of the Mugher River, 9° 50'N, 37° 55'E. Another troop was reported from the higher ground above F.B.I, and the villagers there also claimed that there was a group of six lions, Panthera leo, but this could not be confirmed. Within the gorge, in the immediate neighbourhood of the Forward Base, no trace of larger ungulates or carnivores were seen. Quills of porcupine, Hystrix cristata, were found in the area, and at the mouth of the Mugher River. The only small mammals caught were Acomys sp. and Dendromus mystacalis.

Fincha (=Fingiar) River, junction with the Blue Nile 10° 03′N, 37° 20′E, altitude 1000 m. This was a temporary base, where there was some collecting from 11–13

August 1968. The general terrain and vegetation were the same as F.B.I.

In moving from F.B.1 to the Fincha River on II August, two klipspringer, Oreotragus oreotragus, were seen on the cliffs, and tracks of Papio anubis were found on the river bank. A single Colobus guereza was seen in the riverside trees about I km west of F.B.1, and two warthog, Phacochoerus aethiopicus, were seen en route. At the mouth of the Fincha, quills of Hystrix cristata were again found, and at least two hyraxes, Procavia habessinica were seen. The only small mammal trapped here was the sole dormouse, Graphiurus murinus, obtained by the expedition.

Mabil. Forward Base Two was established on the bank of the Blue Nile at 10° 19'N, 36° 45'E, about 8 km S.W. of Mabil village, and 10 km W. of the Dolnik

River at 900 m. Collecting here occupied 14-20 August 1968.

Travelling west from the Fincha to F.B.2, on the 14th August, the first 10 km of the journey continued through steep-sided gorge, and a further two klipspringer were seen. These were the last ones seen along the river, however, for further westwards the valley opens out. The vegetation remains essentially the same, with just a thin strip of tall trees and a deciduous thorn scrub hinterland. The valley remains uninhabited, but small patches of cultivated land (mostly with maize) suggest temporary, perhaps seasonal farming. With the river flowing more slowly, hippopotamus, Hippopotamus amphibius, were seen for the first time, two east and two west of the Wamet (Uamet) ford at 10° 09'N, 37° 12'E, and at least nine small troops of Papio anubis. Another single Colobus was noted 1 km west of Wamet.

Sight records at F.B.2 included single specimens of the mongoose, Ichneumia albicauda and a male bushbuck, Tragelaphus scriptus, while most of the small mam-

mals caught were Mus sp., probably Mus pasha and Mus tenellus.

Azir River. A temporary base was established from 20–22 August 1968 near the Azir River at 10° 29'N, 36° 25'E, altitude 800 m. The Blue Nile from F.B.2 to the Azir River continues through the rather wider valley. A party of *Colobus* was seen at the mouth of the Dim River (10° 30'N, 36° 26'E) and there was another party in the vicinity of the temporary base. There were also small groups of vervet monkeys, *Cercopithecus aethiops*, at both these localities. A single warthog was seen at the base, and tracks were numerous, as were those of hippopotamus. A number of mice, *Praomys natalensis*, were trapped here.

Caroarsa River. A temporary base was established 10 km east of the Caroarsa River, at 10° 07'N, 36° 12'E, altitude 600 m. Collections date from 23-24 August. From the Azir River to some distance west of the Caroarsa, the sides of the Blue Nile Gorge close in to give a steep-sided rocky valley again, known colloquially as the Western Cataracts. However, the river is not so consistently turbulent as in the Black Gorge and a dozen hippopotamus were counted during the journey west to the Caroarsa on 22 August. There was a small party of Cercopithecus aethiops in the vicinity of the temporary base, and at least one, perhaps two, Colobus. Traces of porcupine and hyrax (?Procavia habessinica) were found, while there were tracks of leopard on the river bank. Ungulate tracks, possibly bushbuck, were also noted. Only three rodents were trapped, single specimens each of Lemniscomys striatus, Mus tenellus and Acomys? dimidiatus. The vegetation at this locality was more lush than elsewhere, a deeper band of riverine forest stretching back for at least 100 m from both banks of the river. As indicative of the added moistness in the area, it was the only site along the Blue Nile from Shafartak westwards where mosquitoes were troublesome.

Didessa River. Forward Base Three was established on an island at the mouth of the Didessa River, 10° 05'N, 35° 38'E, altitude 450 m. Collecting extended from 26-29 August. The island and a thin strip along the river banks constituted a riverine forest, but up the valley sides this gave way as elsewhere to thin scrub. There was a flattish damp area with tall (over 2 m) grass penetrated by the trackways of hippopotamus, and inhabited also by what appeared to be cane rats, Thryonomys sp. From the Caroarsa westwards the Blue Nile runs in a widening valley and flows more gently. The first permanent habitations were noted in the Western Cataracts, and the valley became more densely populated, and more intensively cultivated, from there westwards. The nearest village to F.B.3 was about 5 km west, and there were maize fields on the opposite river bank. Small numbers of Papio anubis, Colobus and hippopotamus were recorded during the journey to the Didessa, and one or two hippopotamus were heard during the nights in the rivers beside F.B.3. A number of Praomys natalensis were caught in the native village nearby, while trapping in the river bank vegetation yielded several Lemniscomys striatus, Crocidura? sericea, and Acomys sp.

Sirba, 10° 05′N, 35° 30′E, marked the western end of the journey downstream. No terrestrial mammals were collected there but four oribi, *Ourebia ourebi*, were seen on the mission airstrip at night on 30th August. The banks of the Blue Nile between the Didessa and Sirba are intensively cultivated, lacking anything more than the odd

remnant tree from the riverine forest, and no large mammals were seen during the last journey down river.

Ghimbi, Wollega Province

Ghimbi, 9° 10'N, 35° 50'E, altitude 2150 m, was a collecting area from 22–31 August 1968. Ghimbi is on the densely populated and intensively cultivated plateau, on the main road west from Addis Ababa. Some collecting was carried out in the town, and in the surrounding maize fields; other specimens came from rough bushland along the main road up to 30 km out of the town. Two specimens came from an area of savannah 24 km north of Ghimbi, at 9° 30'N, 35° 50'E, altitude 1600 m. The main rodents trapped here were Rattus rattus and Lophuromys flavopunctatus, while among carnivores shot here were Felis serval, Ichneumia albicauda and Viverra civetta. In addition specimens of Orycteropus afer, Crocuta crocuta, Colobus guereza, Canis ?aureus and Phacochoerus aethiopicus were reported seen in the area.

Bahar Dar, Gojjam Province

Bahar Dar (Bahr Dar, Bahadar) is located on the main road north from Addis Ababa to Gondar, at the point where it bridges the Blue Nile near the source of the river, 11° 35'N, 37° 25'E, altitude 1830 m. Although on the plateau this area is not so intensively farmed as the environs of Ghimbi and Debra Markos; moreover, there is little arable farming, perhaps because the ground is waterlogged in the wet season, or because the soil is shallow, and instead pastoral farming predominates. Numerous thickets and patches of thorn scrub remain, there is a thin strip of riverine forest along the Nile, and native tree species have not been replaced by the almost ubiquitous Eucalyptus. Collecting around Bahar Dar occupied II-14 September 1968; it was concentrated in an area 15 km south-east of the town, along the road that follows the south bank of the Nile to the Tississiat Falls. Species seen in this area but not collected include Cercopithecus aethiops, Papio anubis, Felis serval, Genetta sp. and Tragelaphus scriptus. The principal rodent trapped was Lophuromys flavopunctatus, and specimens of the rodents Praomys albibes, P. natalensis, Dasymys incomptus and three species of crocidurine shrew were obtained.

Harar, Harar Province

Harar itself is on the high ridge that runs eastwards from the eastern wall of the rift valley, but collecting was carried out on the lower ground further east, along the road to Jiggigga. This area is rather sparsely populated, and is mostly very thin thorn scrub with little or no ground cover; some parts are very dry and rocky.

Bisidima River, 9° 15′N, 42° 12′E, altitude 1500 m. This locality was collected 20–21 September. There is some cultivation of maize, and collecting areas included the *Opuntia* hedges around these fields and rough thorn scrub. Trapping yielded specimens of *Rattus rattus*, *Praomys natalensis*, *Lophuromys flavopunctatus* and *Crocidura doriana*.

Valley of the Rocks, 9° 15'N, 42° 20'E, altitude 1300 m. An area of sparse *Acacia* woodland, with many boulders, cliffs and scree slopes, collected 21 September. Two klipspringer, *Orcotragus oreotragus*, were seen here, and *Procavia* was collected.

60 km East of Harar, 9° 14'N, 42° 32'E, altitude 1200 m. This is a sparsely inhabited area of thin Acacia scrub and very little ground cover, which was studied 21–22 September. Among mammals seen in this area were Felis silvestris, Canis ?aureus, Ichneumia albicauda, and a large troop of sacred baboons, Papio hamadryas. The only small mammals caught here were a gerbil Taterillus ?emini and a rat Praomys fumatus.

Awash, Shoa Province

Awash (=Auasc, Aouche) is well known as a National Park. It lies in the Great Rift Valley in an extension northwards of the more familiar East African Acacia savanna, mostly grass with scattered trees and bushes. There is a strip of riverine forest along the Awash River. The area is still moderately active volcanically, with recent lava flows and lava bubble caves, and is dominated by the quiet cone of Mount Fantalle which rises to 2000 m.

The lava bubble caves are of particular importance in the present context. Some of the lava bubbles have opened at the sides, to give normal caves which were used by bats and porcupines; others have collapsed in the top to form pitfall traps, and two of these, at 8° 56′N, 39° 57′E, yielded more than a hundred skulls of various animals.

Most collecting was carried out on the north bank of the Awash River at 8° 50'N, 40° or'E, and a few specimens came from the area of the hot springs at Filhoa,

9° 00'N, 39° 58'E. Collecting lasted from 23-28 September 1968.

Naturally, in such a rich area for game sight records of many species were obtained. The principal ungulates were oryx, Oryx gazella beisa, and Soemmerring's gazelle, Gazella soemmerringi. Smaller numbers of waterbuck, Kobus defassa, lesser kudu, Tragelaphus imberbis, greater kudu, T. strepsiceros, and warthog, Phacochoerus aethiopicus, were seen, together with three gerenuk, Litocranius walleri. An aardvark was killed on the road in the Park; two leopards and two lions were seen, and a single hippopotamus occasionally wandered through the camp at night. A small troop of Papio anubis was seen frequenting the riverine forest along the Awash River, and small numbers of P. hamadryas were seen in the drier hinterland of the Park. A single zorilla, Ictonyx striatus, seen at night was the first record of that species in the locality. The principal small mammals caught were the gerbils Taterillus?emini, Gerbillus?harwoodi and Tatera robusta, spiny mice, Acomys dimidiatus mullah, and the shrew Crocidura?sericea.

Wellcome Parasitology Unit

In addition to these collections, a number of specimens recently collected by the Wellcome Parasitology Unit based in Addis Ababa have been included. These came from the following localities.

Dessie (Dese), Welu Province, 10° 08'N, 39° 43'E, altitude 2700 m.

Sabeta, Shoa Province, 8° 55'N, 38° 40'E, altitude 2500 m. Addis Alem, Shoa Province, 9° 03'N, 38° 25'E, altitude 2400 m.

SYSTEMATIC LIST

The taxonomy of most groups of the smaller mammals of Africa is in a very provisional state, especially at the level of delimiting the species. These problems can be solved only by comprehensive revision of each genus on a continental scale, which is out of place in a regional list such as this.

The following list is based primarily upon the collection made by the Great Abbai Expedition in 1968, but it also includes mention of all specimens collected by the expeditions from the Royal Military Academy in 1964 and 1966 and some other Ethiopian specimens recently received at the British Museum.

Identification has been attempted at the subspecific level only where the subspecies seem clearly defined or, more often, where the specimens can be confidently allocated to a form named from Ethiopia whose specific relationship is doubtful.

Order INSECTIVORA

Family MACROSCELIDIDAE—Elephant shrews

Elephantulus rufescens (Peters)

Lake Abbaya: one collected at Cullufu River, between Lake Abbaya and Lake Chamo.

This represents the north-western extremity of the range of *E. rufescens*, which is otherwise known in Ethiopia only from the southern border (Mega, Farda Robo, Murri) and from the Harar district, and extends south in the drier, short-grass steppes to Tanzania (Corbet & Hanks, 1968). This specimen differs from all other forms of *E. rufescens* in being very grey, with the mid-dorsal line very dark and the post-ocular spots and upper surface of tail almost black.

Family SORICIDAE—Shrews

Suncus etruscus (Savi)

Bahar Dar: one caught by hand under a stone in wet grassland.

This appears to be the first record of this minute shrew (or any pygmy Suncus) from Ethiopia. It is an adult male with the following dimensions: head and body 49 mm; tail 29 mm; hind feet 7 mm; condylo-incisive length 12·6 mm (13·2–13·7 mm in sample of 13 other S. etruscus); upper tooth row 5·3 mm (5·3—5·8 mm in 20 others); width across M²—M² 3·4 mm (3·6–4·0 mm in 22 others). It resembles the Mediterranean S. etruscus, and differs from the East African S. infinitesimus (Heller), in having the braincase exceedingly flat, with a depth of only 2·4 mm at the basisphenoid.

The only other records of *S. etruscus* from south of the Sahara appear to be one from northern Nigeria in the British Museum collection, reported by Morrison-Scott (1946), and one from Guinea (Heim de Balsac & Lamotte, 1957). The Nigerian

skull also has a short tooth-row ($5\cdot3$ mm), but the rostrum is wider (M^2-M^2 $3\cdot8$ mm) and the length of the skull is not determinable. The Ethiopian and Nigerian specimens differ from most available specimens from the main part of the species' range around the Mediterranean in the large size of the fourth unicuspid teeth and the lack of a concavity on the anterior margin of the large upper premolar, but both have the very flat skull of S. ctruscus, and there seem to be no grounds for the view of Petter & Chippaux (1962) that the Nigerian one should be referred to S. infinitesimus.

Crocidura doriana Dobson

Bahar Dar: two trapped in thicket in wet grassland. Debra Markos: two trapped in grazed *Acacia* scrub.

Harar: one from Bisidima River.

Awash: several skulls from the lava caves.

The two from Debra Markos are very large, exceeding any other specimens from Ethiopia available in the collection of the British Museum: upper tooth-rows 14.7 and 14.8 mm, condylobasal lengths 32.2 and 32.4 mm. The maxima for other Ethiopian skulls are 14.2 mm (n = 17) and 31.8 mm (n = 11) respectively, and Osgood (1936) gave 13.8 mm as the maximum length of upper tooth-row in 28 skulls from Ethiopia.

It is probable that this form should be treated as a race of *C. occidentalis* (Pucheron) or, with *occidentalis*, as a race of *C. flavescens* (I. Geoffroy).

Crocidura cf. sericea Sundevall

Awash: eight collected, possibly of this species; a further 42 damaged skulls were collected from the lava caves.

Blue Nile Gorge: two from the mouth of the Didessa River.

These are medium-sized shrews with a pale grey ventral pelage. Measurements of upper tooth-row of all the Awash skulls, totalling 49, give a unimodal distribution with a mean length of 9.02 mm (S.D. ± 0.37 , range 8.0-10.1). These all show good agreement with specimens from Sudan that have been named C. sericea, and with the types of C. hindei Thomas (Kenya) and C. h. marrensis Thomas & Hinton (Jebel Marra, Sudan). Setzer (1956) allocated larger specimens from central Sudan to C. s. sericea and treated the smaller marrensis and C. lutrella Heller (from Lado Enclave) as races. The Ethiopian specimens agree more closely in size with lutrella and marrensis than with the specimens allocated by Setzer to C. s. sericea which had upper tooth-rows of 10.3 and 10.6 mm.

Crocidura niobe Thomas

Ilubabor Province: one collected by Drs Largen, Morris and Yalden east of Abiu (west of Gore), at 1500 m in forest in January 1971.

This species of shrew was apparently known only from the east side of Ruwenzori, Uganda between 2000 and 2500 m (Thomas, 1906), although it is possible that other

forms from the Congo and from West Africa may be conspecific. This locality is on the south-western edge of the Ethiopian plateau.

It is very dark greyish brown above and below, and the feet and tail are also dark. The tail is extremely slender, about 80% of the length of head and body, and has very sparse vibrissae on the proximal half only. Measurements are: head and body 70; tail 55; hind feet (without claws) 12; ear 9; condylobasal length 19·5; upper toothrow 8·9.

Crocidura bicolor Bocage

Little Abbai: one collected.

Bahar Dar: one caught under a stone in wet grassland with thickets.

This is a small shrew with very dark greyish brown dorsal pelage and moderately dark grey ventral pelage. There is a further specimen in the British Museum from '140 miles S. of Addis Ababa' and Osgood (1936) recorded specimens (as C. b. nana Dobson) from Hadama on the Awash River and from Addis Ababa.

Order PRIMATES

Family LORISIDAE

Galago senegalensis E. Geoffroy-Lesser bush-baby

Ghimbi: one collected 5 km east of the town on the edge of cultivation.

Lake Chamo: two collected on north side of lake.

Family CERCOPITHECIDAE

Cercopithecus aethiops (L.)—Vervet monkey

Soddu: three collected. Little Abbai: one collected. Lake Abbaya: eight collected.

Blue Nile Gorge: small parties of six to eight seen at the Azir, Dim and

Caroarsa river mouths, in or near riverine forest.

Bahar Dar: a party of about six seen in riverine forest.

Colobus guereza Rüppell—Black and white colobus

Soddu: one collected.

Little Abbai: one collected.

Blue Nile Gorge: fairly widespread, with sightings from practically the whole length of the river from the Guder westwards to the Didessa, involving about 20 animals altogether.

Papio anubis (Fischer)—Olive baboon

Lake Abbaya: one collected near Soddu, and two from Arba Minch.

Blue Nile Gorge: seen along the whole length of the river, except perhaps in the Black Gorge, in groups of up to 20.

Bahar Dar: a troop of nine seen on two occasions beside the road to Tississiat.

Awash: a small troop seen in the gallery forest along the Awash River, and reported to raid the camp site occasionally.

Papio hamadryas (L.)—Sacred baboon

Harar: a troop of about 120 seen crossing the Jiggigga road about 60 km east of Harar.

Awash: a small troop on the lower northern slopes of Mount Fantalle.

The ecological and ethological relationship between *P. hamadryas* and *P. anubis* in the Awash area has been studied by Kummer et al. (1970) who reported a zone of hybridization about 15–20 km wide. This, however, is narrow in relation to the mobility of these animals and suggests a considerable degree of reproductive isolation that justifies the retention of species rank for these two forms. There is an ecological separation of the two species, with *P. hamadryas* in the drier regions away from the river. Kummer (1968) has suggested that the juxtaposition of the two species is fairly recent, due to an eastward extension of the range of *P. anubis*.

Theropithecus gelada (Rüppell)—Gelada baboon

Debra Libanos, Shoa: the small colony here is a well known tourist attraction, and lives on cliff-tops not far from the main road north from Addis Ababa. These animals were seen on several occasions, but were the only ones observed.

Order LAGOMORPHA Family LEPORIDAE

Lepus habessinicus Hemprich & Ehrenberg—Abyssinian hare

Harar: ♀ collected at Bisidima River; ♂ and ♀ collected 60 km east of Harar on Jiggigga Road.

Awash: ♂ and ♀ collected.

Lake Abbaya: ♀ collected near Soddu northwest of lake.

These specimens agree with L. habessinicus as recognized by Petter (1963), rather than his L. capensis starcki, in having only narrow margins of black outside the tips of the ears and in having deep, cement-filled grooves in the upper incisors. This species is closely related to L. capensis, if indeed it is distinct at all, and it differs from L. whytei (below) in the very soft pelage, longer ears, black and white tail and in having the anterior faces of the upper incisors in the same (transverse) plane.

Lepus?whytei fagani Thomas—Bush hare

Bahar Dar: four collected in wet grassland with scattered thickets (two of them pregnant with one and two foetuses).

Ghimbi: three collected in bush country close to cultivation.

These specimens agree closely with the type of fagani (from Lake Tana). This form was at first allocated to 'L. crawshayi' by Petter (1959) but later to L. habessinicus (Petter, 1963, 1967). The type of fagani seems clearly referable to the East African group commonly called L. crawshayi rather than to the capensis group to which habessinicus belongs; it and the specimens in the present collection have harsher pelage, brown on the sides of the tail, short ears, and upper incisors with oblique anterior faces.

However, the type of crawshayi de Winton (from central Kenya) seems to belong to the capensis group, and the earliest name for what Petter called L. crawshayi is probably L. whytei Thomas, 1894 from Malawi. Throughout East Africa L. whytei seems to be the short-eared, harsh-furred bush hare, whilst L. capensis is the long-eared, soft-furred species of the more open plains. All the present specimens of L. habessinicus are from the lower, drier areas in the south and east while the L. ?whytei all came from the plateau.

Order RODENTIA

Family SCIURIDAE—Squirrels

Heliosciurus gambianus multicolor (Rüppell) -- Sun squirrel

Blue Nile Gorge: one collected at Mabil.

This squirrel seems identical to a large series in the British Museum from the upper part of the Blue Nile just below Lake Tana, whence it has also been reported by de Beaux (1925). These are lighter than two from Kaffa, presumably referable to H. g. kaffensis Neumann. The species does not appear to have been recorded on the Sudanese part of the Blue Nile.

Xerus erythropus leucoumbrinus (Rüppell)—Striped ground squirrel

Lake Abbaya: two from Soddu; one from Arba Minch.

Lake Chamo: one from northwest of the lake.

These localities are probably close to the northeastern limit of this species, the unstriped *X. rutilus* alone being found in the more eastern parts of the country.

Xerus rutilus (Cretzschmar)—Unstriped ground squirrel

Harar: Valley of the Rocks, 40 km east of Harar. At least three unstriped ground squirrels were seen in a rocky area of open *Acacia* woodland. They are presumably referable to this species, which was recorded from this area by Ingersol (1968).

Family CRICETIDAE

Subfamily GERBILLINAE—Gerbils

Gerbillus (Dipodillus) ?harwoodi Thomas

Awash: seven trapped in various parts of the region; a number of cranial fragments, probably of this same species, were found in each of the lava caves examined.

These small gerbils show good agreement with the type of *harwoodi* (from Naivasha, Kenya), but this must be treated as provisional pending a much-needed revision of this group.

Tatera robusta (Cretzschmar)

Awash: one trapped on north bank of river; a large number of skulls, probably of

this species, from the two lava caves.

Tatera valida soror Allen

Blue Nile Gorge: one from 10 km west of Mabil; one from the mouth of the Didessa River; mandibles, probably of the same species, from a cave at the mouth of the Guder River.

These agree well with the description of *soror*, from Fazogli on the Sudanese Blue Nile, which was allocated to *T. valida* by Davies (1968), although this must be considered tentative.

Taterillus ?emini (Thomas)

Harar: one from 60 km east of Harar on the Jiggigga road.

Awash: two from the north bank of the Awash River.

Both of these gerbils were in very dry, open *Acacia* scrub, the one at Harar close to maize cultivation, those at Awash close to riverside woodland.

There are no previous examples of this genus from Ethiopia in the British Museum except for the much smaller T. harringtoni from the Kenya border near Lake Rudolph. The specimens from Harar and Awash are richly coloured, with almost no grey showing in the pelage. They resemble T. emini from Sudan and Uganda in size, but differ in the posterior palatal vacuities which are unusually short for any T aterillus. Measurements are as follows (Harar followed by Awash): head and body 117, 119; tail (from pelvis) 127, 167; hind foot (without claw) 31, 32; ear 19, 16; condylobasal length 31·1, 33·7; upper molar row 4·9, 4·8; posterior palatal vacuities 3·0. 3·1.

Family MURIDAE

Genus ACOMYS -- Spiny mice

Acomys ?cahirinus (Desmarest)

Blue Nile Gorge: two from mouth of Guder River, trapped on a rocky hillside in thick bush.

Lake Abbaya: one from N.E. of Lake Chamo. See remarks under A. ?dimidiatus below.

Acomys?dimidiatus (Cretzschmar)

Blue Nile Gorge: one 10 km east of Caroarsa River, in riverine forest; three at mouth of Didessa River, in riverine forest and long grass.

Awash: four trapped in dry open *Acacia* scrub close to riverine woodland; remains of two animals from one of the lava caves.

The taxonomy of the spiny mice of the genus *Acomys* in this region is very provisional. The Awash animals agree very closely with the type of *mullah* Thomas from Harar, which Setzer (1968) referred to *A. dimidiatus*. These have large skulls, the only one with moderately worn teeth having a condylobasal length of 28·2 mm and with upper tooth-rows of 4·5, 4·5 and 4·6 mm.

The Acomys from the Blue Nile appear to fall into two groups. Two from the mouth of the Guder River are smaller, with upper molar rows of 4·1 and 4·3 mm and condylobasal lengths of 25·8 and 25·5 mm (both are adults with well worn teeth). The remaining four (Caroarsa and Didessa Rivers) have upper molar rows of 4·6, 4·8, 4·8 and 4·9 mm and the two with worn teeth have condylobasal lengths of 27·7 and 28·4 mm. Skins of these two groups are not distinguishable. The difference in size strongly suggests the presence of two species, but in the absence of both at the same locality and in more adequate numbers this cannot be considered certain. The smaller one is tentatively referred to A. cahirinus and agrees well, in size and in colour, with A.c. cineraceus Fitzinger & Heuglin from eastern Sudan to which Setzer (1956) referred animals from the Sudanese Blue Nile. If Setzer (1968) was correct in allocating mullah from Harar to a larger species, A. dimidiatus, widely sympatric with A. cahirinus, then the four larger animals from the Blue Nile may represent A. dimidiatus, but this must be considered very provisional until these two species can be more adequately delimited.

The single animal from Lake Chamo has a very greyish pelage and a small skull (upper molar row 4·3 mm, condylobasal length 25·0 mm) and is likely to represent A. cahirinus.

Genus ARVICANTHIS—Grass rats

Arvicanthis niloticus abyssinicus (Rüppell)

Debra Markos: four trapped in low, grazed *Acacia* scrub. The single female was pregnant (four embryos).

Dessie: ten from 18 km N.W. of Dessie, trapped on a rocky bank beside a marsh at 2700 m (from Wellcome Parasitology Unit no. 2).

Addis Alem: one collected by Dr Aklelu Lemma.

The animals from Debra Markos could be referred to fluvicinctus Osgood, but this is unlikely to be separable from abyssinicus. It was based entirely on the longer upper molar row of animals from west of the Blue Nile and the present series from Debra Markos and Dessie, on either side of the Blue Nile, show considerable overlap in this character. The specimens from Debra Markos are, however, distinguished from the Dessie series by an overall suffusion of yellowish brown whereas the Dessie animals are almost pure grey.

These are all dark-bellied animals and most have a distinct narrow mid-dorsal stripe. Other Ethiopian forms that are probably conspecific are *blicki* Frick (S. Chilalo Mts), and *saturatus* Dollman (Guma, Didessa River).

Arvicanthis lacernatus (Rüppell)

Harar: one from the Bisidima River, trapped in grazed thorn scrub.

Dessie: seven from 31 km N.W. of Dessie, trapped in a dry river valley at 2000 m (from Wellcome Parasitology Unit no. 2).

Lake Abbaya: seven from Arba Minch, S.W. of lake.

Awash: parts of ten skulls of a large Arvicanthis, probably this species, from one of the lava caves. One skin and skull, of an animal trapped in the National Park, received on loan from the park museum.

There seems to be good reason to recognize two species of large Arvicanthis in Ethiopia and in adjacent regions of Sudan, Uganda and Kenya, although much remains to be done to assess their variability. The present species has the underparts grey, rather sharply demarcated from the brown of the flanks. The grey of the belly may be quite dark, as in the series from the Dessie region, or may be suffused with brown in the midline as in the animal from Harar, but it is never speckled like the dorsal pelage as it is in most A. niloticus. A. lacernatus lacks a clearly defined dorsal stripe, and there is a tendency for the rump and hind legs to be unspeckled and tinged with orange brown. These characteristics are seen in fairly extreme form in the specimen from Harar; in the series from Lake Abbaya the brown on the rump is less distinct whilst in the series from Dessie it is absent altogether and the ventral pelage is a uniform dark grey. The brown colour on the rump in this species is very evenly distributed and seems quite distinct from the sporadic crythrism that seems to be a characteristic of A. niloticus. The specimen of A. niloticus from Addis Alem. for example, has on the belly a large irregular patch of hair with the basal parts chocolate brown instead of the usual slaty grey, and the tips vellowish brown instead of pale cream.

The specimen from Harar agrees very closely with the type of *pelliccus* Thomas (from Lake Tana) which Osgood (1936) maintained was a synonym of *lacernatus*. Other Ethiopian forms that are probably conspecific are *zaphiri* Dollman (Guma, Didessa River), *mearnsi* Frick (Awash) and perhaps *raffertyi* Frick (Gardula). It is possible that another synonym this species is *Isomys testicularis* Sundevall, 1843 from Bahr-el-Abiad, Sudan.

There is no evidence amongst the present collection of the two species being strictly sympatric in Ethiopia, but de Beaux (1930) recorded both from a single locality in Eritrea, and Heller (1911) described both species from Rhino Camp, N.W. Uganda (as A. jebelae and A. rubescens).

Arvicanthis somalicus Thomas

Awash: parts of 69 skulls from the lava caves; one animal shot by day in dry Acacia scrub, but only the skull preserved; six animals subsequently trapped by

D.W.Y. in December 1970 at Metahara, in heavily grazed grassland with patches of Acacia scrub.

This species, described from northern Somalia, does not appear to have been recorded hitherto in Ethiopia. Allen (1939) listed it as a distinct species, with *chanleri* and *reptans* from northern Kenya as races, but Misonne (1968) recognized only one species of *Arvicanthis*, presumably considering *somalicus* to be no more than subspecifically distinct from *A. niloticus*.

The skulls from the Awash caves were the first indication of two sympatric species differing in size (fig. 3), and agreeing respectively with specimens of A. somalicus

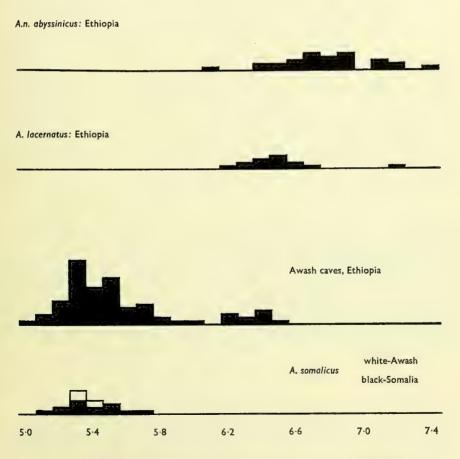


Fig. 3. Length of upper molar row (at maximum of crown) of Arvicanthis spp.

from Somalia and of A. lacernatus from elsewhere in Ethiopia. This was confirmed by the trapping of six specimens of A. somalicus nearby at Metahara in 1970.

These specimens agree very closely with A. somalicus from Somalia, including the type, except that the pelage is less yellow. The difference in size, especially of the tooth-row, is sufficiently clear to leave no doubt that there is sympatry of two species at Awash. (Besides the large skulls in the cave sample, we have subsequently seen a specimen of A. lacernatus trapped at Awash, which had a tooth-row of $6\cdot3$ mm.)

A. somalicus can therefore be considered specifically distinct from A. niloticus and A. lacernatus, and this record extends its known range by about 400 km westwards from the nearest localities in northwestern Somalia represented by specimens in the British Museum (around Hargeisa). The types of chanleri Dollman and reptans Dollman, both from the Northern Uasso Nyiro district of Kenya, also fall well within the range of these Ethiopian specimens, with molar rows of 5.6 and 5.5 mm respectively, but considerably more work needs to be done to establish to what extent these small forms are sympatric with larger ones in Kenya.

Externally A, somalicus and A, lacernatus are very similar at Awash. The best distinguishing characters are probably the greater amount of yellow in the dorsal pelage of A, lacernatus, especially marked on the rump, and the longer hind feet

(22-23 mm in A. somalicus; about 30 mm in A. lacernatus).

The five available skins of A. somalicus from Awash are all of rather young animals, with the teeth scarcely worn, and therefore the other external measurements (head and body 93–106 mm; tail 88–105 mm) are probably below adult size. The ventral pelage of A. somalicus resembles that of A. lacernatus in being pale grey, rather sharply demarcated from the brown of the flanks.

Dasymys incomtus (Sundevall)—Shaggy rat

Bahar Dar: one trapped in wet grassland with scattered thickets.

Bahar Dar is close to the type locality of *D. i. griscifrons* Osgood, but this specimen does not show the grey forehead and face described for *griscifrons*. The only other examples of this species from Ethiopia in the British Museum are single specimens from Nono, upper Omo and Wodessa River, Guma. Delany & Neal (1963) also reported this species from damp habitats in Uganda ('swamps, reed beds and river valleys') and mentioned that it occurs above 4000 m on Ruwenzori.

Lemniscomys striatus (L.)—Striped mouse

Blue Nile Gorge: one 10 km east of Caroarsa River; four at mouth of Didessa River. These were all trapped in long grass on the bank of the river.

The only previous records of this species in Ethiopia appear to be from Nono, 150 km south of the Blue Nile (the type of wroughtoni Thomas), from the Urgessa River (an upper tributary of the Didessa River) and from Delbena River, Konso (?near Mega in the extreme south). The two skins from the Blue Nile have the normal yellowish brown ground colour with only the mid-dorsal stripe dark, closely resembling L.s. massaicus (Pagenstecher) of Kenya and the skin from Konso, and quite different from the adjacent L.s. wroughtoni which has all the dark stripes virtually black. The type and only available specimen of wroughtoni came from 3600 m; the single specimen from the Urgessa River, at 2300 m, is considerably less dark, in fact intermediate between wroughtoni and the normal specimens from the Blue Nile at the mouth of Didessa River at about 800 m.

The Blue Nile animals resemble the East African L.s. massaicus and differ from West African forms, e.g. L.s. striatus, in having the lateral white stripes very bold and continuous. They differ from most L.s. massaicus in having the second white stripes (away from the mid-dorsal line) very well marked whereas these stripes are very fragmentary in massaicus.

Lophuromys flavopunctatus Thomas—Harsh-furred rat

Bahar Dar: seven trapped in thickets in wet grassland. Debra Markos: one trapped in low, grazed *Acacia* scrub.

Ghimbi: two adults and three nestlings.

Harar: two trapped amongst thorn scrub at Bisidima River.

Dessie: two from 18 km N.W. of Dessie at 2700 m, trapped on the edge of a marsh (from the Wellcome Parasitology Unit no. 2).

Addis Ababa: one from the British Embassy compound (from Wellcome Parasitology Unit no. 2); one from Meta Abo, Sabata, c. 20 km S.W. of Addis Ababa.

The specimens from Harar appear to differ from the series from the highlands only in the lighter and brighter orange-brown colour of the proximal zone of the dorsal hairs. These can probably all be attributed to *L.f. flavopunctatus*. The single skin from Addis Ababa differs from all the others in being more coarsely speckled above due to longer subterminal light bands on the hairs.

The locality at Harar, although close to the River Bisidima, is an unusually dry habitat for this species which is more characteristic of montane forest or moist scrub.

One female from Harar and that from Debra Markos were pregnant, each with five embryos.

Genus MUS-Pygmy mice

Mus mahomet Rhoads

Debra Markos: two trapped in small thicket surrounded by grazed grassland.

Dessie: one from 18 km N.W. of Dessie at 2700 m on a steep rocky hillside grazed by goats; two from 31 km N.W. of Dessie at 2000 m (all from the Wellcome Parasitology Unit).

This is a rather distinctive species, apparently confined to Ethiopia and the adjacent part of Somalia. It is a fairly large grey-bellied form with yellow lines bordering the grey and a faint mid-ventral yellowish stripe.

Mus tenellus (Thomas)

Blue Nile Gorge: four from 10 km west of Mabil, trapped in dry scrub; one 10 km east of Caroarsa River, trapped amongst tall, wet grass.

Awash: two, probably of this species, in dry Acacia scrub close to riverine wood-land

The group of small, white-bellied Mus (or Leggada) badly needs revision. These have been compared with the type of tenellus (from Roseires on the Sudanese Blue Nile) and there seems little doubt that at least the Blue Nile animals can be allocated to that form.

Mus?pasha (Thomas)

Blue Nile Gorge: eight from 10 km west of Mabil, trapped in grassland adjacent to

permanent riverine vegetation.

These are white-bellied mice considerably larger than M. tenellus, with head and body length of 69-85 mm (49-65 mm in M. tenellus), hind feet of 14-15 mm (12-13 mm in M. tenellus), and upper molar row of 3.7 mm (two specimens; 3.1 and 3.0 mm in two M. tenellus). Leggada pasha was described from the Uele District, N.E. Congo but was treated by Osgood (1936) as a race of Mus proconodon Rhoads from Somalia. Setzer (1956) did not record either of these forms from the Sudan.

Genus PRAOMYS-Soft-furred rats

Praomys albipes (Rüppell)

Debra Markos: one caught by hand in camp amongst low Acacia scrub.

Bahar Dar: two trapped in thickets in wet grassland.

Blue Nile Gorge: one caught on a boat, 30 km below Portuguese Bridge near Mota at 11° 12'N, 38° 05'E, altitude 1400 m.

Addis Ababa: nine from about 48 km west of Addis Ababa (from Wellcome Parasitology Unit).

Dessie: one from 31 km N.W. of Dessie (from Wellcome Parasitology Unit).

Lake Abbaya: eight from the Bonchi Valley, west of the lake at 2000 m.

This is a clearly defined species, formerly placed in the genus *Myomys*, confined to the Ethiopian Highlands except for an isolated and only doubtfully conspecific form, *P.a. fuscirostris*, in Sudan. These specimens, like all those recorded from Ethiopia, belong to *P.a. albipes*. All are from the plateau, between 1400 and 3000 m.

Praomys fumatus brockmani (Thomas)

Harar: one trapped in thorn scrub beside a dry river bed 60 km east of Harar on Jiggigga road.

This specimen agrees well with the type of *brockmani* from northern Somalia and is distinctly paler than *P.f. allisoni* Hayman from central Ethiopia. This species was recorded from the Harar area by Ingersol (1968).

Praomys (Mastomys) natalensis (Smith)

Blue Nile Gorge: one skull found at mouth of Guder River; one trapped in dry scrub 10 km west of Mabil; four trapped in long grass at the edge of riverine forest at the mouth of the Azir River; eleven from the mouth of the Didessa River, in long grass on the river bank and in maize cultivation near the village.

Bahar Dar: one trapped in thicket in wet grassland. Ghimbi: one 24 km north of Ghimbi, in long grass.

Harar: two from Bisidima River, in dry, grazed thorn-scrub.

Awash: four from dry Acacia scrub; a few skulls from the lava caves.

Lake Abbaya: eight from the following localities. Bonchi Valley, west of lake, 2900 m; Collufo River, between Lake Abbaya and Lake Chamo; mouth of Darsi River.

Little Abbai: six collected.

Osgood (1936) recognized two species of 'Mastomys' in Ethiopia, which he called M. coucha lateralis (Heuglin) and M. macrolepis (Sundevall). The latter he described as having a longer tail, shorter hind feet and paler ventral pelage, and recorded from the Blue Nile Gorge and Lake Tana (the type locality is Roseires on the Blue Nile in Sudan). Setzer (1956) listed macrolepis as a race of M. natalensis (M. coucha), although he recognized two sympatric species of Mastomys elsewhere in Sudan. In the present collection the animals from the Nile Gorge have the tail longer than the head and body (measured from the anus) with four exceptions out of 16 (mean 102.4% of head and body); those from Awash and Harar have the tail shorter than the head and body in five out of six animals (mean 94.7%). The Nile animals have the ventral pelage paler than the eastern ones, but there is no difference in length of hind foot: mean of 24.6 mm in the gorge, 24.5 mm in the eastern samples. The single skin from Bahar Dar on Lake Tana is dark-bellied with a short tail as in the eastern samples.

These are all tentatively referred to *P. natalensis*, but this group badly needs revision, especially in view of the demonstration of sibling species with very different

chromosome complements elsewhere in Africa (Matthey, 1966).

Rattus rattus alexandrinus (Geoffroy)—House rat

Ghimbi: three collected in or around the town.

Harar: three from the Bisidima River. Lake Abbaya: six from near Soddu.

These are called R.r. alexandrinus following the revision by Schwarz and Schwarz (1967) who treated Mus samharensis Heuglin (Ethiopia) and Mus kijabius Allen (Kenya) as synonyms.

Dendromus mystacalis Heuglin

Blue Nile Gorge: one from mouth of Guder River, caught by hand in the camp near steep rocky hillside with thick bush; one at mouth of Didessa River, caught by hand under bushes on a small island. Both were in the riverine forest strip.

This is a poorly known species in Ethiopia although it appears to have a wide distribution through much of Africa. These specimens have a very slight darkening in the mid-dorsal area but no black stripe, and a similar specimen is in the British Museum from 230 km south of Addis Ababa. Specimens from Dangila and Lake Tana on the other hand mostly have a clear dorsal stripe.

Otomys typus (Heuglin)

Debra Markos: one trapped by day in low, grazed Acacia scrub.

This specimen represents the nominate subspecies, described from the Simien Mountains.

Family GLIRIDAE—Dormice

Graphiurus murinus ?internus Dollman

Blue Nile Gorge: one at the mouth of the Fincha River, trapped in riverine forest, 45 cm off the ground in dry bushes.

There are very few previous records of *Graphiurus* from Ethiopia. These appear to be from Mt. Amar Cocche, Omo Valley, recorded as *Claviglis brockmani internus* by de Beaux (1943); Saganeita, Eritrea, recorded as probably *C. orobinus* by de Beaux; Guri Dagono and Sidamo, Arussi, recorded as *G.m. saturatus* by Hayman (1960); and Gara Mullata, Harar, recorded by Ingersol (1968) without allocation to subspecies. Only the skin from Guri Dagono has been available for comparison. The present specimen appears identical, but with respect to colour these specimens are much closer to the type of *G.m. internus* Dollman from northern Kenya than to the darker *G.m. saturatus* from Mount Elgon. The skull is, however, rather large (condylobasal length 23·3 mm as compared with 20·7 in the type of *internus*, a slightly older animal judging by the teeth).

This genus has never been adequately revised and the allocation of all named forms from northeastern Africa to *G. murinus* (type locality Cape of Good Hope) must be considered very tentative. A form described from Senaar on the Blue Nile in Sudan, *Myoxus orobinus* Wagner, 1845, may be relevant, but no further specimens have been reported from that region of Sudan and the original description is inadequate.

Family RHIZOMYIDAE—Mole-rats

Tachyoryctes splendens (Rüppell)

Dessie: one from 18 km N.W. of Dessie (from the Wellcome Parasitology Unit no. 2). Addis Ababa: one from Meta Abo, Sabata, c. 20 km S.W. of Addis Ababa.

Lake Abbaya: two from the Bonchi Valley at 2900 m; one from Mount Gugi (2400 m); and three from Arba Minch.

These can probably all be referred to T.s. splendens, being rather smaller than T.s.

cheesmani Thomas from Lake Tana.

Tachyoryctes macrocephalus hecki Neumann and Rümmler

Bale Mountains: one (skin and skull) from Dinshu (—Gurie), Ueb Valley, at 3500 m (from Mr J. H. Blower); a fragmentary skull from an eagle's nest 30 km south of Dinshu at 3800 m (sent by Mr L. H. Brown); a complete skull from Batu (6° 55'N, 39° 47'E, 4150 m) collected by Mr H. F. Mooney. Mr Blower (in litt.) also saw colonies of this species at 3800 and 4000 m in the same area, apparently confined to 'open moorland where the grass is very short, often in relatively damp places, sometimes near streams'.

This is a very large mole-rat, about twice the size of the common *T. splendens*. Both the nominate race (from Shoa) and *T.m. hecki* appear to be known only from the original specimens, namely three syntypes of *macrocephalus* (in Berlin, Frankfurt, and London) and the type of *hecki* in Berlin.

The type locality of *hecki* was given as 'Abakkara, etwa 150 km westlich des Abassi Sees in Grenzgebiet zwischen Djamdjam und Arussi Galla gelegen'. Assuming that 'Abassi See' is Lake Awusa, the 'westlich' would seem to be an error for 'ostlich'. This would place it not only between Djamdjam and Arussi but close to the locality of the records reported here.

The present specimens agree with the description of *hecki*, and differ from the London syntype of *macrocephalus*, in having the rostrum and upper incisors relatively small (Table 1). This difference is very marked and suggests that these might prove to be genuinely discrete subspecies or even species, perhaps isolated by altitude. Even in *T.m. macrocephalus* the incisors are relatively smaller than in the small *T. splendens*, suggesting a less fossorial habit, and this is supported by the sight records, the animals being described as marmot-like and frequently visible on the surface (J. H. Blower, in *litt.*).

There is an old record of 'Tachyoryctes macrocephalus' from Kita in the upper part of the Senegal basin (now in Mali) (Rochebrune, 1883). It was described as 'plus commune... dans les environs de Kita, où elle habite les crevasses des rochers et les pentes sablonneuses des collines boisées; les Européens la désignent sous le nom de Marmotte'. It seems probable that this account really refers to the gundi, Felovia vae (Lataste), which was not otherwise mentioned by Rochebrune and was first discovered by Lataste in the Felou Hills, about 250 km northwest of Kita, and described by him in 1886.

Ignoring this probably erroneous record, T. macrocephalus is endemic to the Ethiopian plateau.

 $\label{table I} \textbf{TABLE I}$ Measurements of Tachyoryctes macrocephalus

	T. m. hecki			T. m. macrocephalus			
(Type of		Senck.			
	BM 68.856	BM 70.746	hecki*	BM 71.876	BM 42.8.15.1	Mus. 728*	Berlin*
Length of head and							
body (from dry							
skin)	c, 400						
Length of hind feet	33				34		
Condylobasal length				64.0			
Width across pre-							
maxillae	11.5	12.2	c. 10·9	11.8	14.1		
Combined width of							
upper incisors						0.6	
(near tip)	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.0	9.5	8.6	9.5
Interorbital width	5.7	6.0	6.2	6.2		5.7	6.3
Length of nasals	29.6	30.2		28-3	27.9		
Upper molar row		_					
(alveolar)	12.0	11.8	13.0	12.1		12-0	12.2
Lower molar row							
(alveolar)	13.2		13.8	13.8	13.1	13.3	13.7
Length of mandible	43		C. 42	43	c. 45	43	

^{*} From Neumann & Rümmler, 1928.

Family THRYONOMYIDAE—Cane rats

Thryonomys gregorianus (Thomas)

Blue Nile Gorge: one damaged skull from a cave 10 km W of Mabil; possible sightings at the Didessa River.

Wollega Province: one specimen from Bako in Addis Ababa Museum (skull and colour photo of mounted skin examined by G.B.C.).

Ilubabor Province: one skin from Gambela collected by Dr J. Ash in March 1969. The Blue Nile specimen was on the surface of the floor of a cave covered with bat and hyrax guano and therefore must be very recent. These appear to be the first records of Thryonomys from Ethiopia, and in Sudan the only record of T. gregorianus is from the Didinga Mountains on the southern border. These skulls agree closely with the type of gregorianus (from central Kenya) and differ from the type of harrisoni Thomas & Wroughton from southern Sudan in having the nasals short and wide; the posterior processes of the premaxillae wide and rounded (in dorsal view); and the zygomatic parts of the lachrymals elongate. The skin from Gambela could conceivably be T. harrisoni if that is distinct. Both skins have the short tail (not extending beyond the hind feet when these are extended backwards) characteristic of T. gregorianus and T. harrisoni in contrast to the very much longer tail of T. swinderianus. The skin from Gambela is of a young animal with the following measurements: head and body 329; tail 73; hind feet 71; and ear 25 mm.

Setzer (1956) treated T. gregorianus and T. harrisoni as specifically distinct, recording both from southern Sudan. Misonne (1968) recognized only two species in

the genus, *T. swinderianus* and *T. gregorianus*, presumably treating *harrisoni* as conspecific with *gregorianus*, but in view of the cranial differences and the small numbers of specimens available it seems wise to treat them as provisionally distinct.

A subfossil *Thryonomys* from a mesolithic site at Khartoum, Sudan has been described as *T. arkelli* by Bate (1947, 1949). Bate considered it more closely related to the larger *T. swinderianus* than to *T. gregorianus* or *T. harrisoni* and a re-examination of the type supports this view. It differs from the types of *T. gregorianus* and *T. harrisoni* and from the Ethiopian specimens in its slightly larger size, prominent masseteric knob and robust anteroventral root of the zygomatic arch.

Family **HYSTRICIDAE**—Porcupines

Hystrix cristata L.—Crested porcupine

Lake Chamo: one from northeast of lake, in the 'White Grass' area.

Blue Nile Gorge: quills found at the Mugher, Guder, Fincha and Caroarsa Rivers.

Awash: quills found in the lava caves.

H. cristata is here considered to include the East African galeata (Corbet & Jones, 1965).

Order CARNIVORA

Family CANIDAE

Lycaon pictus (Temminck)—Hunting dog

Lake Abbaya: one shot near Soddu in 1964.

Canis aureus L.-Golden jackal

Luma, Didessa Basin: a skull received from Mr John Blower is probably of this species. The animal was shot in a cultivated clearing in bamboo forest at 9° 40′N, 35° 55′E, 2000 m.

Dangila: one shot between Dangila and Engiabara.

Little Abbai: two collected.

Otocyon megalotis (Desmarest)—Bat-eared fox

Harar: one from the Bisidima River; one from 60 km east of Harar on the Jiggigga road; eight others seen in this area.

Awash: a skull was found on the floor in one of the lava caves.

Family MUSTELIDAE

Ictonyx striatus (Perry)—Zorilla

Awash: one seen at night.

Addis Ababa: one dead on the main road south-east from Addis Ababa to Shashamane.

Family VIVERRIDAE

Genus GENETTA—Genets

Genetta genetta (L.)

Harar; one from the Bisidima River; one from 60 km east of Harar on the Jiggigga road.

Genetta ?tigrina (Schreber)

Ghimbi: one from 24 km east of Ghimbi. Lake Chamo: one from northwest of lake.

Lake Abbaya: one from Arba Minch, southwest of lake.

The three skins collected are very similar in colour and pattern. According to Coetzee (1967) the Ethiopian race is *G.t. schraderi* Matschie. The taxonomy of this group of genets is in a very provisional state. It is possible that the northern forms of the *tigrina* group, including *schraderi*, represent a separate species, *G. rubiginosa*. A third species of genet recorded from Ethiopia, but not represented in the present collections, is *G. abyssinica* (Rüppell) which Coetzee (1967) separated subgenerically from *G. genetta* and *G. tigrina*.

Ichneumia albicauda (G. Cuvier)—White-tailed mongoose

Bahar Dar: one collected. Ghimbi: three collected.

Lake Abbaya: two from Arba Minch.

Lake Chamo: three from northwest of lake; two from 12 km south of Gardulla, south of the lake.

Blue Nile Gorge: one seen at Mabil.

Herpestes sanguineus Rüppell—Slender mongoose

Lake Chamo: one from west side of lake; one from northeast of lake.

Viverra civetta Schreber—Civet

Ghimbi: one from 10 km east of town.

Lake Abbaya: one from near Soddu; one from Arba Minch.

Family HYAENIDAE

Proteles cristatus (Sparrman)—Aardwolf

Awash: the remains of five animals were recovered from one of the lava caves, one as a complete skeleton and four skulls.

The aardwolf has a very wide distribution in Africa, but it is a very elusive animal and is seldom recorded. Ingersol (1968) reported it from the Afden Plain just east of the Awash and at Amarresa in the Harar district.

Crocuta crocuta Erxleben—Spotted hyaena

Harar: about 15 hand-fed by the 'hyaena man' at dusk outside the city.

Ghimbi: one dead on the main road east of the town.

Debra Markos: up to six seen around the town.

Family FELIDAE

Felis silvestris libyca Forster-Wild cat

Harar: one from the Bisidima River.

Bahar Dar: one collected.

Blue Nile Gorge: one from Shafartak.

Felis serval Schreber—Serval

Degen, Gojjam: one collected.

Ghimbi: one collected. Little Abbai: two collected.

These all have the ground colour of the pelage yellowish as in F. s. hindei Wroughton from Kenya which they closely resemble, and are not nearly so pale as in the type of F.s. tanae (Pocock, 1944) from Lake Tana.

Panthera pardus (L.)—Leopard

Blue Nile Gorge: one seen beside the river, between Shafartak and the Mugher; traces near the Caroarsa River.

Awash: two seen.

Panthera leo (L.)—Lion

Awash: two seen hunting together.

Blue Nile Gorge: unconfirmed report of a party near the mouth of the Guder River.

Order HYRACOIDEA

Procavia habessinica (Hemprich & Ehrenberg)—Large-toothed rock hyrax

Harar: two from Valley of the Rocks, 40 km east of Harar; two from 60 km east of Harar (all *P.h. erlangeri* Neumann).

Lake Langano: two from west side of lake (P.h. alpini (Gray)).

These two groups are so different in appearance that their conspecificity must be considered doubtful. The *P.h. erlangeri* agree closely with a series in the British Museum from Dire Dawa, about 50 km N.W. of Harar, and specimens were recorded from Harar by Neumann. These all have the head black with a rufous tinge, the dorsal pelage mottled yellow and black and the dorsal glandular spot scarcely visible. A very young animal (head and body 260 mm) has the head equally black but there is less yellow in the rest of the dorsal pelage.

The skins of P.h. alpini have the head much lighter, the dorsal pelage greyish brown and finely speckled, and the glandular streak prominently yellow. The yellow glandular streak distinguishes this form from P.h. habessinica from N.E. Ethiopia and from P.h. scioana (Giglioli), a very dark form from Ankober, Shoa, as well as from P.h. erlangeri.

In view of the many problems remaining to be solved in this genus it seems premature to assume these to be conspecific with the South African *P. capensis* as suggested by Ellerman & Morrison-Scott (1951).

Heterohyrax brucei brucei (Gray)—Small-toothed rock hyrax

Harar: two from 60 km east of Harar, at precisely the same locality as the *Procavia habessinica*.

Blue Nile Gorge: mandibles found at mouth of Guder River.

Lake Abbaya: two from Arba Minch; two from Arba Mondi, south of lake.

The specimens from Harar agree closely with the type of brucei. The form hararensis Brauer from near Harar was listed by Allen (1939) as a synonym of somalica Thomas from N. Somalia, described as smaller and paler than the type of brucei. It is unlikely that somalica will prove a valid subspecies, but in any case the specimens from Harar seem closer to brucei than to somalica. H.b. hararensis was diagnosed as smaller than brucei and distinguished from both brucei and somalica by greyish white ventral pelage. In fact the present specimens have quite dark yellowish buff undersides, one of them with an irregular pure white area of the chest and in front of the genitalia. The dorsal glandular streak is bright yellowish brown.

The specimens from Lake Abbaya in the Rift Valley are scarcely distinguishable from those from Harar.

Order TUBULIDENTATA

Orycteropus afer (Pallas)—Aardvark

Debra Markos: burrows seen.

Awash: one killed by a car on the track in the park.

Order PERISSODACTYLA Family EQUIDAE

Equus burchelli boehmi Matschie—Common zebra

Lake Chamo: up to 96 counted in the 'White Grass' area.

Order ARTIODACTYLA

Family HIPPOPOTAMIDAE

Hippopotamus amphibius L.—Hippopotamus

Blue Nile Gorge: seen from the Fincha River westwards, including Wamet Ford (4), Azir to Caroarsa (12), Didessa (tracks, and several heard at hight). Heard also

in the vicinity of Tississiat Falls. A skull found at the mouth of the Azir River was preserved.

Awash: one seen on several occasions.

Lake Abbaya: two skulls were found and preserved.

Family SUIDAE

Phacochoerus aethiopicus (Pallas)—Wart hog

Lake Abbaya: six collected, two near Soddu and four from near Arba Minch.

Lake Chamo: group of nine seen in the 'White Grass' area.

Awash: two family parties of 4+ seen; a skull was found in one of the lava caves.

Potamochoerus porcus (L.)—Bush pig

Lake Abbaya: one from south of the lake.

Family BOVIDAE

Madoqua phillipsi hararensis Neamann—Phillip's dik-dik

Harar: three from 60 km east of Harar on the Jiggigga road. Awash: numerous sight records, each of one or two animals only.

Madoqua guentheri Thomas—Günther's dik-dik

Lake Chamo: four from the 'White Grass' area.

Sylvicapra grimmia (L.)—Common duiker

Bahar Dar: one collected, and several others seen.

Little Abbai: two collected.

Lake Abbaya: one from near Soddu.

Sire, Wollega: skull preserved of a female killed on the main road from Ghimbi to

Addis Ababa, between the towns of Sire and Bako at 9° 08'N, 37° 05'E.

Ourebia ourebi (Zimmerman)—Oribi

Blue Nile Gorge: four seen at night on the air-strip at Sirba.

Oreotragus oreotragus (Zimmerman)—Klipspringer

Blue Nile Gorge: two seen between the Guder and Fincha Rivers and two between the Fincha River and Wamet Ford.

Harar: two seen in the Valley of the Rocks.

Kobus defassa (Rüppell)—Waterbuck

Awash: several, including a party of four.

Lake Chamo: a herd of 16 in the 'White Grass' area.

Alcelaphus buselaphus swaynei (Sclater)—Common hartebeest

Lake Chamo: up to 104 counted in the 'White Grass' area.

This subspecies is considered to be extinct in Somalia, and perhaps only 200 exist in Ethiopia (Simon, 1968).

Tragelaphus scriptus (Pallas)—Bushbuck

Ghimbi: two from 16 and 20 km east of Ghimbi.

Lake Abbaya: two from Arba Minch. Blue Nile Gorge: one seen at Mabil.

Bahar Dar: one seen. Awash: one seen.

Tragelaphus imberbis Blyth—Lesser kudu

Awash: seen in small numbers.

Tragelaphus strepsiceros (Pallas)—Greater kudu

Lake Chamo: two from between Lake Chamo and Lake Abbaya.

Lake Abbaya: one from Borodda, N.W. of lake.

Awash: up to 14 seen.

Litocranius walleri (Brooke)—Gerenuk

Awash: three seen.

Gazella soemmerringi (Cretzschmar) - Soemmerring's gazelle

Awash: large numbers seen, in groups of 50–100. One was collected and a skull was retrieved from one of the lava caves.

The specimen collected resembles the Somalian race, G.s. berberana Matschie, 1893, in its horn shape and extensive dark nose spot, and the Awash animals can probably be attributed to that race. This specimen does not agree well with Matschie's (1912) description of G.s. erlangeri from Awash.

Gazella granti Brooke—Grant's gazelle

Lake Chamo: two collected in the 'White Grass' area and 46 counted on one occasion.

Oryx gazella beisa (Rüppell)—Oryx

Awash: large numbers seen, including one herd of 150. Parts of two skulls were retrieved from the lava caves.

DISCUSSION

Zoogeographically, the fauna of Ethiopia (usually termed, to avoid confusion, the Abyssinian fauna) is noted for its peculiar caste. While much of the fauna is of a general East African type, including species with a wide distribution even down to the Cape Province, there is also a small proportion of species of Palaearctic affinities and a significant roster of endemic species as well. Moreau (1966) for the birds and Carcasson (1964) for the butterflies have commented on these peculiarities of the Abyssinian fauna when seen from the viewpoint of continental zoogeography, while Carpenter (1935), approaching the subject from a study of the Abyssinian butterfly fauna particularly, and including also relevant information from other groups, has discussed the different taxa.

The conspicuous endemicity undoubtedly results from the large area of high plateau included in Ethiopia and its isolation from neighbouring mountain areas—both Moreau and Carcasson note that two habitat types, montane woodland and montane grassland, contain most of the endemics in the groups they studied. The interplay of a variable Pleistocene climate and this montane area is presumably responsible for the Palaearctic element reaching Ethiopia—during glacial (pluvial) periods, montane habitats would have occurred at lower altitudes, and would have spread up the mountains along the Red Sea coast of the Sudan and Nubia. This spread of montane habitat in the glacial periods would also account for another peculiar zoogeographical relationship of some Abyssinian fauna, that element which is of general montane type and may as a result have affinities with the fauna of the Cameroon Highlands of West Africa.

Any zoogeographical analysis of the mammalian fauna has hitherto been mainly confined to the larger mammals—see for example Blower (1968), Scott (1958) and Glass (1965)—and can be usefully illustrated by the maps showing the range of individual species throughout Africa in Dorst & Dandelot (1970). In the following analysis the smaller mammals are also considered, although many taxonomic problems remain to be solved before this can be quantified precisely at the levels of the species and subspecies.

The East African savanna and steppe element

This is the dominant element in southern and western Ethiopia, in the Rift Valley and in the valley of the Blue Nile. Many of the species concerned have wide distributions throughout the savanna zone from West Africa to Tanzania and further south, e.g. the giraffe Giraffa camelopardalis, the hartebeest Alcelaphus buselaphus and the striped mouse Lemniscomys striatus. Species of this group vary in the extent to which they penetrate Ethiopia. L. striatus occurs in the valley of the Blue Nile and its tributaries but does not appear to occur in the Rift Valley. A. buselaphus on the other hand extends through the Rift Valley to the Awash Valley. Grant's gazelle Gazella granti shows another pattern in that it reaches from Kenya into the southern part of the Rift Valley but is replaced by a related species, G. soemmerringi, in the northern part of the rift.

Small mammals falling into this general group, all reaching their north-eastern

limit in Ethiopia, are Graphiurus murinus, Praomys fumatus, Elephantulus rufescens and Galago senegalensis. Species with a similar range, but also reaching north of Ethiopia, are Acomys spp., Arvicanthis niloticus, Hystrix cristatus, Lepus capensis, Crocidura flavescens s.l. and Felis silvestris.

The Somalian arid zone element

Somalia is an area with a considerable degree of endemicity amongst the dry steppe fauna, and some of these species reach into eastern Ethiopia. The most sharply differentiated (endemic genera) are the gundi, Pectinator spekei, the naked mole-rat, Heterocephalus glaber, which reaches west as far as Shoa, the dibatag, Ammodorcas clarkei, which just reaches eastern Ethiopia, the beira, Dorcatragus megalotis, and the gerbil Microdillus peeli, the last two unrecorded from Ethiopia. Another group comprises species that are more closely related to widely distributed savanna or steppe species, e.g. Gazella soemmerringi which has a wide range, reaching round the northern edge of the Ethiopian highlands to the Sudan, the dik-dik Madoqua phillipsi and the grass-mouse Arvicanthis somalicus here recorded from Awash. Comparable Somalian species that do not appear to have been recorded in Ethiopia are the elephant shrew Elephantulus revoili and the hedgehog Erinaceus sclateri.

The Palaearctic element

This is a very small element in the mammalian fauna comprising the ibex, with Capra ibex nubiana in the Red Sea Hills and a southern isolate, C.i. walie, in the Simien Mountains; the wild ass Equus africanus in the Danikil Desert; and the shrew Suncus etruscus, here reported from the plateau but in its Mediterranean range a species of the drier lowlands. It is probable that the hedgehog Paraechinus aethiopicus, a species with a Saharan and Arabian distribution, is also present in northern Ethiopia. All these are tolerant of dry conditions. The ass probably had a continuous range from North Africa to Somalia in recent times, but the ranges of the ibex and the shrew are of a relict character, the latter showing a considerable degree of disjunction although it is an easily overlooked species and may still be found in intervening regions.

Among the birds of Ethiopia, the most notable Palaearctic immigré is the chough Pyrrhocorax pyrrhocorax, while the endemic owl Asio abyssinicus is considered a close relative of the northern A. otus; other Palaearctic birds listed by Moreau (1966) include the grebes Podiceps caspicus and P. ruficollis, the lammergeier, Gypaetus barbatus, Alpine swift, Apus melba, and quail Coturnix coturnix, which occur also into Kenya. Among the butterflies Carcasson (1964) and Carpenter (1935) list seven or eight species of Palaearctic affinity, including the endemic 'speckled wood', Pararge madarakal, and Pieris brassicoides, found also in Tanganyika.

The East African montane element

In spite of the very great distances separating the montane forest and grassland habitats of Ethiopia from comparable habitats further south, e.g. in the Kenya

highlands and Mount Elgon, there are several forms showing very little differentiation between these segments of their ranges. Examples amongst the rodents are Lophuromys flavopunctatus, Lophiomys imhausi, Otomys jacksoni and Tachyoryctes splendens. Some of these species, however, have moderately wide ecological requirements, e.g. L. flavopunctatus which is here recorded from seasonally dry habitats near Harar although it is more strictly confined to forest farther south. A lesser known rodent with a highly disjoint distribution is Colomys goslingi, known from swampy habitats in Cameroon, N.E. Congo, Kenya and the Ethiopian plateau where it is known from a single specimen previously believed to represent an endemic genus Nilopegamys (see Hayman, 1966). The mountain reedbuck, Redunca fulvorufula, also has a highly disjunct range with isolates in S. Africa and perhaps in Cameroon, but it is tolerant of fairly dry habitats.

Amongst the birds and butterflies there are likewise a number of species with strikingly disjunct distributions in various montane areas in East Africa, and across in some cases to the Cameroon Mountains and in others as far as Cape Province. The weaver *Cryptospiza salvadori*, for example, occurs in isolated patches of Ethiopia, Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania, while the babbler *Alcippe abyssinicus* occurs in these areas and in the Cameroons as well (Moreau, 1966). Carpenter (1935) listed about ten butterflies with similar distributions.

The endemic element

Endemic Ethiopian species are confined to the highlands and especially to the high montane grasslands which have presumably had the longest period of isolation and until recent deforestation were presumably much more sharply isolated from any comparable lowland habitats than they are today. The species concerned are the gelada baboon, Theropithecus gelada, the Simien fox, Canis simensis, the mountain nyala, Tragelaphus buxtoni, the genet Genetta abyssinica, the giant mole-rat Tachyoryctes macrocephalus, and the murid rodents Stenocephalemys albocaudata, Muriculus imberbis, Dendromus lovati, Praomys albipes, and Pelomys dembeensis. All these are well defined species, and three are currently considered endemic genera, namely Theropithecus, Stenocephalemys and Muriculus. It is possible that further endemic species occur in the genera Crocidura, Procavia, Lophuromys, Arvicanthis, Praomys, Mus and Pelomys, but further revision is needed to clarify their relationships with neighbouring forms.

All of these endemics belong to African rather than to Palaearctic groups, and all have their closest relatives in Ethiopia or in adjacent parts of East Africa. There are probably about 135 species of mammals in Ethiopia (excluding bats and marine species) and the eleven clear-cut endemics listed above therefore represent about 8.5% of the fauna, a figure that is likely to increase somewhat with further revision. Of the estimated 124 non-endemic species, about 16 are montane species whose Ethiopian populations are widely isolated from the rest of the range whilst the remainder, the great majority, are the more xerophilous species with ranges extending relatively unbroken into surrounding territories.

Carcasson (1964) listed at least 8 endemic butterflies (Pararge maderakal, Papilio

aethiops, Mylothris mortone, Bicyclus aethiops, Charaxes phoebus, Acraea oscari, A. ungemachi, A. safie) while Carpenter (1935) listed in all about 526 species from above 1500 m in Ethiopia; neither of these figures are complete, but they suggest an endemicity in the fauna of perhaps 2%. Among the endemic birds, Moreau (1966) mentioned the owl Asio abyssinicus, blue-winged goose Cyanochen cyanopterus, a swallow Hirundo megaensis, and the crow Zavattariornis stresemanni. In all, he suggested that there are 3 montane-forest and 21 montane non-forest endemic birds, while Urban & Brown (1971) listed 23 endemics in a total avian (breeding) fauna of 655 species. This would suggest an endemicity of about 3.5%.

Summary of Zoogeographical Affinities

It is clear from what little information has been presented above that the mammal fauna of Ethiopia shares with the better known bird and butterfly faunas the zoogeographical peculiarities of a conspicuous endemic element, a Palaearctic element, and also an element of discontinuously distributed montane animals. There is a suggestion that among the mammals the endemic element is greater and the other two elements fewer, and it is tempting to speculate on the role of relative mobility of the mammals as against the birds and butterflies. Unfortunately the mammalian faunas of both Ethiopia and other areas of importance are not sufficiently well known to be categorical about this –it may be relevant to note here that this paper records four species new to Ethiopia (Crocidura niobe, Suncus etruscus, Thryonomys gregorianus and Arvicanthis somalicus) and records several others that have been previously noted fewer than six times (Tachyoryctes macrocephalus, Taterillus emini, Lemniscomys striatus, Praomys fumatus, Proteles cristatus).

Fauna of the Blue Nile Gorge

Since the main object of the 1968 expedition was to carry out a scientific survey in the gorge of the Blue Nile, some concluding comments on the small mammals obtained there are justified. One point that was very evident in the field was the scarcity of small mammals—over nine hundred trap-nights were required to obtain 52 small mammals, or 17 trap-nights per specimen (for comparison, at Awash, about 5 trap-nights per animal, and at Bahar Dar 15 per animal, were required). From the species caught, it is evident that the small mammal fauna of the gorge is comparable with that found at Awash and east of Harar; among the species or genera common to both are Crocidura ?sericea, Acomys dimidiatus, Heterohyrax brucei, Procavia habessinica (on sight records only from the Blue Nile Gorge), Tatera sp. (T. valida in the Gorge, T. robusta in the East), Mus tenellus, and Oreotragus oreotragus.

By contrast, the collecting localities on the plateau (Ghimbi, Bahar Dar, Debra Markos) have in common Lophuromys flavopunctatus, and Praomys albipes was found at the two more northern of these. The presence in the Blue Nile Gorge of Tatera valida, Lemniscomys striatus, Mus? pasha and Acomys spp. implies perhaps the incursion of an East African savanna element. While for human travel the Blue Nile Gorge represents a considerable barrier, so far as small mammals are concerned

it would seem rather to be a highway allowing dry-country, lowland species to penetrate deeply into the centre of Ethiopia.

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Thanks are due to all those members of the Great Abbai Expedition and the previous expeditions who made these collections, and this report, possible. If this acknowledgement seems rather curt, full justice is done in the expedition reports. So far as the actual collection of mammals is concerned, particular thanks are due to Dr P. A. Morris, Dr M. J. Largen, and H. King. D.W.Y. would like to acknowledge the receipt of a staff travel grant from the University of Manchester. We are grateful also to Mr John Blower, Mr Leslie Brown, Dr R. Ashford and Dr Aklelu Lemma for sending specimens.

GAZETTEER

			Altitude	Dates of
			(metres)	collecting
Abiu, Ilubabor	8°11′N	35°22′E	1500	January 1971
Addis Ababa, Shoa	9°00′N	38°45′E	2300	
Addis Alem, Shoa	9°03′N	38°25'E	2400	
Arba Minch, Gemu Gofa	6°04′N	37°40′E	1300	6 August-3 September 1966
Awash, Shoa	8°50′N	40°01′E	950	23–28 September 1968
Awash (lava caves), Shoa	8°56′N	39°57′E	950	28 September 1968
Azir River (mouth of)	10°29′N	36°25′E	800	20–22 August 1968
Bahar Dar, Gojjam	11°35′N	37°25′E	1830	11–14 September 1968
Bako, Wollega	9°08′N	37°05′E	1800	
Bisidima River, Harar	9°15′N	42°12′E	1500	20–21 September 1968
Bonchie Valley, Gemu Gofa	6°05′N	37°20′E	2700	1966
Caroasa River (near mouth)	10°07′N	36°12′E	600	23–24 August 1968
Collufu River (mouth), Gemu Gofa	6°04′N	37°40′E	1300	6 August–3 September 1966
Danghila, Gojjam	11°15′N	36°55′E	2000	
Darsi River, Gemu Gofa	6°15′N	37°50′E	1300	
Debra Libanos, Shoa	9°45′N	38°50′E	2300	
Debra Markos, Gojjam	10°20′N	37°50′E	2500	4–27 August 1968
Degen, Gojjam	10°10′N	38°05′E	2500	
Dessie, Welo	10°08′N	39°43′E	2700	
Didessa River (mouth of)	10°05′N	35°38′E	450	26–29 August 1968
Dim River (mouth of)	10°30′N	36°26′E	800	22 August 1968
Engiabara, Gojjam	10°58′N	36°58′E	2500	
Fantalle (Mt), Shoa	8°58′N	39°54′E	2000	
Filhoa, Awash, Shoa	9°00′N	39°58′E	1000	23-28 September 1968
Fincha River (mouth of)	10°03′N	37°20'E	1000	11-13 September 1968
Gambela, Ilubabor	8°15′N	34°35′E	600	
Ghimbi, Wollega	9°10′N	35°50′E	2150	22–31 August 1968
Guder River (mouth of)	9°50′N	37°41′E	1000	8–11 August 1968
Gughe (Mt), Gemu Gofa	6°05′N	37°20′E	2700	
Harar, Harar	9°20′N	42°08′E	2000	
Jiggigga Road (60 km E. of Harar)	9°14′N	42°32′E	1200	21–22 September 1968

Lake Abbaya, Gemu Gofa (S.W.,				
near Arba Minch)	6°04′N	37°45′E	1300	6 August–3 September
Lake Abbaya, Gemu Gofa (N.W.,				
near Soddu)	6°40′N	38°oo′E	1500	8–23 August 1964
Lake Chamo, Gemu Gofa (White				
Grasses)	5°58′N	37°55′E	1500	1966
Little Abbai, Gojjam	11°20′N	37°00′E	2000	27 August- 5 September 1964
Mabil, Gojjam	10°19′N	36°45′E	900	14-20 August 1968
Mota, Gojjam	11°05′N	37°54′E	2500	,
Metahara, Shoa	8°53′N	39°55′E	1000	
Mugher River (mouth of)	9°50′N	37°55′E	1000	8 August 1968
Nono, Upper Omo	8°30′N	37°21′E	1600	
Sabeta, Shoa	8°55′N	38°40′E	2500	
Shafartak	10°06′N	38°17′E	1150	
Sirba, Wollega	10°50′N	35°30′E	400	29–30 August 1968
Sire, Wollega	9°03′N	36°54′E	1800	
Soddu, Sidamo	6°45′N	37°50′E	1800	
Tississiat Falls	11°30′N	37°37′E	1800	
Valley of the Rocks, Harar	9°15′N	42°20′E	1300	21 September 1968
Wamet Ford	10°09′N	37°12′E	1000	20 August 1968

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THE SHELL STRUCTURE AND MINERALOGY OF THE BIVALVIA

II. LUCINACEA – CLAVAGELLACEA CONCLUSIONS

J. D. TAYLOR
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Pp. 253-294; 15 Plates, 33 Text-figures, 22 Tables



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THE SHELL STRUCTURE AND MINERALOGY OF THE BIVALVIA

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By J. D. TAYLOR, W. J. KENNEDY & A. HALL

ABSTRACT

The shell microstructure of twenty six remaining bivalve superfamilies is described with the aid of acetate peels and electronmicroscopy. In the order Heterodonta most shells consist of outer crossed-lamellar and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layers. Three superfamilies, the Lucinacea, Tellinacea and Veneracea have all, or some members, with an additional outer layer of composite prismatic structure. Minor variations consist of the occurrence of homogeneous structure in many families, resulting from a reduction in grain size and loss of crystal form in each structure. The order Myoida is more varied with crossed-lamellar and complex crossed-lamellar shells in the Corbulidae, Gastrochaenacea and some Pholadacea. The Hiatellacea are mainly all homogeneous but *Panopea* has a three layered shell consisting of an outer simple aragonite prismatic layer and middle and inner homogeneous layers. A very similar outer prismatic layer is found in some Pholadacea. In the Anomalodesmata two shell structure conditions are found, either a three layered shell, consisting of an outer layer of simple aragonite prisms and two nacreous layers or two homogeneous layers.

Twelve shell structure characters can be used as an aid to superfamilial classification; but they must be used in conjunction with other characters and geological history. The shell structure characters have been superimposed upon a phylogenetic tree derived from many characters; the points of variance and similarity of shell structure with this phylogeny are discussed in turn. It is suggested that the Arcoida may be more closely related to the Heterodonta than the Pteriomorphia. A 'pholadomyacean' stock has been in existence since the Ordovician and it is probable that both the Myoida and Anomalodesmata may be derived from this stock.

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INTRODUCTION

This is the continuation to Taylor, Kennedy & Hall (1969) in which we reviewed Bivalve shell structure, mineralogy and shell formation, and documented these features in the superfamilies Nuculacea to Trigonacea. Here we describe the distribution of structures in the remaining superfamilies and discuss the importance of shell structures in the classification of the Class.

SYSTEMATIC DESCRIPTIONS

Since the publication of the first part of this work was published the Treatise of Invertebrate Palaeontology, Part N Bivalvia has appeared, which uses a system of classification slightly modified from that of Newell (1965) which we used previously. As the 'Treatise' classification will stand for some time we have used it for the arrangement of superfamilies described below.

Sub Class HETERODONTAOrder VENEROIDA

LUCINACEA

(Plate I, figs I, 2 & 5; Text-figs I & 2)

Fifteen species of this family have been examined mineralogically and ten structurally. The shell is aragonitic throughout.

Three main shell layers are present in all the species examined. There is an outer composite prismatic layer, a middle crossed-lamellar layer, which forms much of the hinge plate and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer which is bounded by the

TABLE I

LUCINACEA

	Observations	Thin bands of myostracal- type prisms and scattered large tubules in the inner layer	Prismatic Myostracal-type prisms build	Observations
Myostraca	Adductor	Not seen	Prismatic	raca
Myos	Pallial	Thin, prismatic	Thick prismatic	Myostraca Pallial Adductor
	Inner layer	Composite Crossed- Complex crossed- Thin, prismatic lamellar lamellar prismatic	Composite Crossed- Complex crossed- Thick prismatic lamellar lamellar prismati	Inner layer
	Middle Inner layer layer	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- rkmetlar	Middle layer
	Outer layer	Composite Crossed- Compley prismatic lamellar lamellar	Composite Crossed- Complex prismatic lamellar lamellar	Outer layer
	Mineralogy Outer layer	Aragonite	Seychelles Aragonite	Mineralogy Outer layer
	Locality	Indo- Pacific	Seychelles	Locality
	Species	Codakia punctata (Linnaeus)	Codakia tigerina (Lienomol	Species

TABLE I LUCINAGEA

	Observations	Thin bands of myostracal- type prisms and scuttered large tubules in the inner- layer	Myostracal-type prisms build the bulk of the inner layer, ormplex-crossed lamellar structure is best developed where it contains fine ban of myostracal-type prisms and scattered tubules	Extensive layers of myostracal-type prisms in the inner layer. Tubules	may be present Fine bands of myostracal- type prisms in the inner layer	Prominent layers of myostraval-type prisms in the inner layer	Layers of myostracal-type prisms beneath umbo	Extensive development of myostracal-type prisms in the inner layer	Extensive layer of myostracal-type prisms in the inner layer form the bulk of the marginal parts of this layer.	Extensive development of myostracal pillars in the nner layer							Observations	
Myostraca	Addu, tor	Not seen T	Prismatic M	Not seen E	m Not seen Fi	Not seen Pr	Not seen La	Not seen Exmy	Not seen Exmy my the the of	Not seen Ex	I	I	1	1	I	1	raca	Adductor
Myos	Pallial	Thin, prismatic	Thick prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thick, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Well- developed prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Well- developed, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Myostraca	Palhal
Inner	layer	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed-	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed-	Inner	
Middle	layer	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed-	Middle 1	
Outer	layer	Composite	Composite prismatic	Composite prismatic	Composite	Composite prismatic	Composite prismatic	Composite prismatic	Composite	Composite prismatic	Composite	Composite	Composite prismatic	Composite prismatic	Composite	Composite prismatic	Outer	layer
Mineralogy		Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Mineralogy	ò
Locality	,	Indo- Pacific	Seychelles	W, Indies	Eocene, Calcaire Grossier, France	Cape Verde	Sarawak Borneo	Oshima Japan	Galway	Tor Bay, England	East Indies	Seychelles	Ecuador	Malta	Ecuador		Locality	
Species		Codakia punctata (Linnaeus)	Codakia tigerina (Linnaeus)	Divaricella quadrisulcata (d'Orbigny)	Fimbria lamellosa (Lamarck)	Lucina columbella (Link)	Lucina fijiensis Smith	Lucina pila Reeve	Lucina borealis (Linnaeus)	Lucinopsis undata Forbes & Hanley	Corbis fimbriata Cuvier	Clena divergens (Reeve)	Divaricella eburnea (Reeve)	Loripes lucinalis (Link)	Lucinisca liana (Pilsbry)	Tliyasira sp.	Species	4

trace of the pallial line. The outer composite prismatic layer is usually very thin but forms the ribs when present. The first order prisms lie with their long axes arranged radially to the umbo (Plate I, fig. I). In the middle crossed-lamellar layer the first order lamels are arranged with their long axes concentric to the shell margin. The lamels are often very fine when compared with some groups such as the Arcacea or Limopsacea but similar to those in the Carditacea and Astartacea. A prismatic pallial myostracum is present in all species examined, although variable in thickness. The inner shell layer is the most variable; complex crossed-lamellar structure is present in all species (Plate I, figs 2 & 5) but varies in extent. The rest of the inner layer is made up of myostracal prisms which may occur as sheets, which alternate with the complex crossed-lamellar structure (Lucina fijiensis) or as large blocks (Codakia tigerina). These sheets of myostracal prisms may represent periods of temporary mantle attachment.

Scattered large tubules are present in the inner layer of *Codakia punctata*; tubules are also present in *Divaricella quadrisulcata* and *Codakia tigerina*.

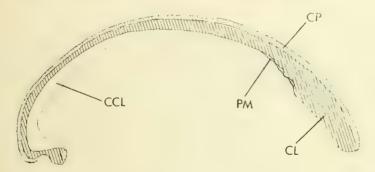


Fig. 1. Radial section of *Lucina columbella*. CP = composite prismatic, CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum.

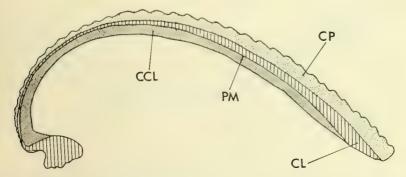


Fig. 2. Radial section of *Corbis fimbriata*. CP = composite prisms, CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, P = pallial myostracum.

CHAMACEA

(Text-fig. 3)

The shell structure, anatomy, and evolution of the Chamacea have been discussed in some detail elsewhere (Kennedy, Morris & Taylor, 1970), as has the shell structure and mineralogy of the anomalous species *Chama pellucida* (Taylor & Kennedy, 1969).

Amongst Recent species the shell is aragonitic throughout, with the exceptions of *Chama pellucida* and *C. cxogyra*, which contain substantial amounts of calcite in a distinct outer layer. Two fossil species *Chama gryphina* (Miocene) and *Chama haueri* (Turonian) show traces of calcite but there is no evidence that this was an original feature of the shell.

In all wholly aragonitic species examined, two main shell layers are present (text-fig. 3). There is an outer, crossed-lamellar layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer bounded by the trace of the pallial line. In the outer layer the first order lamels are arranged concentrically to the shell margin; in many specimens part of the outer layer may be missing apparently as a result of abrasion.

Myostraca are very well developed in the Chamacea, the pallial myostracum is thin, although always distinct and readily recognizable, extending throughout the hinge area. The adductor myostraca form thick pads and often interdigitate with the inner complex cross-lamellar layer as a result of slight shifting of attachment and body position during growth. In *Chama iostoma* other myostraca were seen presumably associated with the pedal muscles.

The inner shell layer of the Chamacea is basically formed of complex crossed-lamellar structure, varying from fine to coarse textured and complicated by sheets of myostracal type prisms and myostracal pillars. These features show varying development both inter and intra specifically. Myostracal pillars often arise from

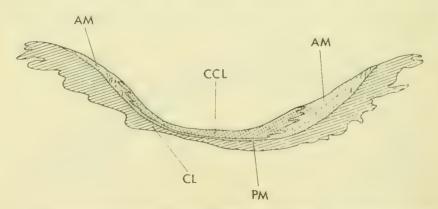


Fig. 3. Anterior-posterior section through $Pseudochama\ radians$. $\Delta M=$ adductor myostracum, PM= pallial myostracum, CL= crossed-lamellar, CCL= complex crossed-lamellar.

pallial and adductor myostraca. In *Chama spondyliodes* myostracal pillars are also present in parts of the outer crossed-lamellar layer. Seen on inner shell surface myostracal prisms are often arranged in rows radial from the umbo.

The Chamacea are markedly tubulate but there is much variation in the abundance and distribution of these structures which are usually confined to the inner layer.

Chama pellucida and C. exogyra differ from wholly aragonitic forms in possessing an outer prismatic calcite layer of unusual structure described by Taylor & Kennedy (1969). The remarkable occurrence of calcite was first noticed by Lowenstam (1954) but he considered (1964) that the outer crossed-lamellar layer of tropical species had changed to calcite prisms in the temperate C. pellucida. He used this example as evidence in the general temperature/mineralogy trends he demonstrated for invertebrate skeleta. However other temperate species of Chama seem to be wholly aragonitic.

A table of the shell structure characters of the thirty species of *Chama* examined will be found in Kennedy *et al* (1970, p. 390).

LEPTONACEA

Most species of this superfamily are very small and thin shelled. Four species were examined mineralogically and by electron-microscopy. The shell is aragonitic.

Two shell layers are present in all species examined; an outer crossed-lamellar layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer. The two layers are separated by the prismatic pallial myostracum.

TABLE 2 LEPTONACEA

Species	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer	Inner layer	Pallial myostracum
Kellia suborbicularis Montagu	Britain	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic, thin
Kellia pustula Deshayes	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	
Scintilli oweni Deshayes	Karachi	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic, thin
Scintilla rosea Deshayes	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic, thin

CHLAMYDOCONCHACEA

Lack of material prevented examination of specimens of this peculiar monogeneric superfamily which have internal shells contained within mantle sacs.

CYAMIACEA

Three species of this small superfamily were examined structurally and mineralogically. In all three species the shell is aragonitic and consists of two layers both of them of fine granular homogeneous structure. The layers are separated by a thin prismatic pallial myostracum.

TABLE 3 CYAMIACEA

Species	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer	Inner layer	Pallial myostracum
Cyamium antarcticum (Philippi)	Falkland Islands	Aragonite	Homogeneous	Homogeneous	Prismatic
Cyamium laminiferum (Lamy)	Antarctic	Aragonite	Homogeneous	Homogeneous	Prismatic
Neodavisia cobbi (Cooper & Preston)	Falkland Islands	Aragonite	Homogeneous	Homogeneous	

CARDITACEA

(Plate 2, figs 4, 5 & 6; text-figs 4 & 5)

Fifteen species have been examined mineralogically and eleven structurally. The shell is aragonitic throughout.

Two main shell layers are present, an outer crossed-lamellar layer which forms the bulk of the hinge and teeth, and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer which is bounded by the trace of the pallial myostracum. The first order lamels of the outer layer are very fine and are mostly arranged concentrically, but in some species a reflected shell margin causes the lamels to appear to have a radial alignment (Plate

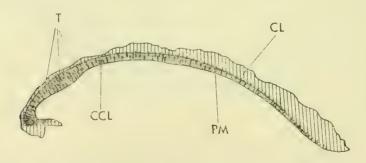


Fig. 4. Radial section of Cardita variegata. CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum, T = tubules.

TABLE 4

CARDITAGEA

	Observations	The crossed-lamellar layer is	very nne. Fine tubules and prominent banding are present in the inner layer.	The crossed-lamellar layer is	banded, with abundant fine myostracal pillars, fine price	matic bands and fine tubules						
Myostraca	Adductor	Not seen		Not seen			Not seen	N-V	TAOR Seen	Not 2	dees jour	Not seen
W	Pallial	Not seer		Thin,			I nın, Prismatic	Thin	Prismatic	Thin.	Prismatic	Thin, prismatic
Inner layer	(Complex crossed. Not seen lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Commit	complex crossed-		Complex crossed	lamellar	crossed-	ıameilar	crossed-		
Mineralogy Outer layer	Crossed-lamon-	c cscc-iamenar	Crossed-lamellar	Thirtie		Crossed-lamellar		rossed-lamellar		Tossed-lamellar (Clossed-lamellar Complex crossed. lamellar
Mineralogy	Aragonite)	Aragonite	1		Argonite	Aragonito		Aragonite		Aragonite	
Locality	Auckland,	New Zealand	New England Aragonite	France				Britain	S. Africa		Britain A	
Species	Cardita australis Lamarck		Cardita borealis		Cardita aculeata	Elchwald	Cardita sulcata Sowerby	T	t necalia concamerata (de Blainville)	(200	de Blainville)	

TABLE 4

CARDITACEA

	Adductor Observations	seen The crossed-lamellar layer is very fine. Fine tubules and prominent banding are present in the inner layer.	seen The crossed-lamellar layer is very fine, as is the complex crossed-lamellar layer. I ine tubules are present in the inner layer.	seen The crossed-lamellar layer is very fine, the complex-crossed lamellar layer has prominent banding, seattered, rather fine, myostracal layers and fine tubules	seen The structure of both layers is rather fine. There are abundant tubules in the inner layer		tubules in the mare layer The structure of the crossed lamellar layer is rather fine. There are traces of fine prism layers and fine tubules in the inner layer	een The structure of the crossed- lamellar layer is rather fine. There are abundant myo-	stracal pulars in the inner layer and a few in the mar- ginal parts of the outer layer. Fine tubules are present in the inner layer	cen There are abundant myostracal pillars in the inner layer, and in the inner part of the outer layer where this lies below the inner layer. These pillars are also present throughout most of the outer layer outside the pallial inner layer.	en The structure of the crossed- lamellar layer is rather fine. The inner layer is strikingly banded, with abundant fine tubules	cen The structure of the crossed- lameller layer is distinctly banded, with abundant fine myostracal pilars, fine pus- matic bands and fine tubules	ua	nee	en	ben.
Myoetraca	Addu	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen		Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen	Not seen
My	Pallial	Not seen	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Not seen	Not seen	Thin, prismatic?		Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin
Vaccin	Inner layer	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal pillars and bands of myostracal- type prisms	Crossed complex- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar		Complex crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lameilar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Comments on the said
au co	Outer layer	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar		Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Canad lamphas
	Mineralogy	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite		Aragonite	Aragonite	Argaonite	Argonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	
	Locality	Auckland, New Zealand	New England	Indian Ocean	Florida	Queensland	Queensland			Kenya	Ecuador	Calcaire Grossier, Lutetian, Dameray, France		Eocene, Britain	S. Africa	Destron
	Species	Cardita australis Lamarck	Cardita borealis Conrad	Cavăita calyculata Bruguière	Cardita floridana Conrad	Cavitta incrassata Sowerby	Caviita marmorea Dunker	Cardita sowerbyi Deshayes		Cardila variegala (Bruguière)	Cavàilamera affinis (Reeve)	Venericardia imbricata Lamarck	Cardita aculeata Eichwald	Cardita sulcata Sowerby	Thecalia concamerata (de Blainville)	L'eneucos blanicactata

TABLE 5

CRASSATELLACEA

O. 1	Observations	Outer layer very finely crossed-lamellar, inner layer with conspicuous banding	Outer layer very finely crossed-lamellar, inner layer			Observations
таса	Adductor	Indistinct, Not seen thin, prismatic?	Not seen			raca
Myostraca	Pallial	Indistinct, thin, prismatic?	Indistinct, Not seen thin,			Myostraca Pallial Add
	inner layer	Homogeneous	Homogeneous			Inner layer
•	Mineralogy Outer layer	Aragonite Crossed-lamellar Homogeneous	W. Australia Aragonite Crossed-lamellar Homogeneous			Outer layer
	Mineralogy	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Mineralogy Outer layer
:	Locality	W. Indies	W. Australia	Greenland	L. Lias, Blockley, Gloucs.	Locality
	Species	Crassatella antillarum Reeve	Crassatella decipiens Reeve	Conrad Astarte ellipta Macgillivray	Astarte quexii (d'Orbigny)	Species

TABLE 5

CRASSATELLACEA

					Managana		
Species	Locality	Mmeralogy	Outer layer	Inner layer	Pallial	Adductor	Observations
Crassatella antillarum Reeve	W. Indies	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous	Indistinct, thm, prismatic ²	Not seen	Outer layer very finely crossed-lancellar, inner layer with conspicuous banding
Crassatella decipiens Reeve	W. Australia	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous	Indistinct, thin, prismatic?	Not seen	Outer layer very finely crossed-lamellar, inner layer with conspicuous banding
Crassatella lamellosa Lamarck	Lutetian, Dameray, France	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous	Not seen	Not seen	Prominent banding in the inner laver
Crassatella radiata (Sowerby)		Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous	Not seen	Not seen	
Eucrassatella gibbosa (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Outer layer very finely crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous when traced inwards
Astaste bosealis (Schumacher)	Greenland	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous with myostracal prisms	Thin, prismatic	1	Inner layer langely built/of myostracal-type prisms; homogeneous structure present beneath umbones only
Astarte incrassata Deshayes	Phocene, Italy	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed lamellar with myostracal prisms	Indistinct, thin, prismatic?	Not seen	Complex crossed-lamellar structure present only beneath umbones
Astarle obliqua Sowerby	Phocene, Britain	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous with myostracal prisms	Thm, prismatic	Not seen	Myostracal-type prisms form most of the inner layer
Astarte omalii (Jonkiere)	Pliocene, Britain	Argonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal prisms	Indistinct, thin, prismatic	Not seen	Inner layer mostly built of myostracal-type prisms, unter ingering with complex-crossed lamellar structure in umbonal region
Astarte striata Sowerby	Greenland	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous with myostracal prisms	thin prismatic	1	Inner layer almost entirely built of myostracal-type prisms
Astarte sulcata (da Costa)	Pilocene, Italy	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal prisms	Thin, prismatic	l	Inner layer almost entirely built of myostracal-type prisms
Astarte sulcata (da Costa)	Millport	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal prisms	Thin, prismatic	1	Inner layer almost entirely built of myostracal-type prisms
Crassatella dilatata Deshayes	Lutetian, Dameray, France	Aragonite					
Crassatella trigonata Lamarck	Lutetian, Dameray, France	Aragonite					
Crassinella lunatula	Florida	Aragonite					
Astarte ellipta Macgillivray	Greenland	Aragonite					
Astavte quexii (d'Orbigny)	L. Lias, Blockley, Gloucs.	Aragonite					
Species	Locality	Mineralogy	Mineralogy Outer layer	Inner layer	Myostraca Pallial Add	Adductor	Observations

2, fig. 4). The outer layer is frequently very thin or worn off in the umbonal area. A thin discontinuous prismatic pallial myostracum was seen in most species. In Cardita calyculata the prisms were seen in the umbonal area only.

The inner layer is somewhat variable; the complex crossed-lamellar structure is rather fine and prominent banding is seen in most species (Plate 2, fig. 6). Myostracal pillars are developed in several of the species examined: in Cardita calyculata and Venericardia imbricata they are restricted to the inner layer. In C. sowerbyi & C. marmorea there are abundant pillars in the inner layer and a few in the marginal parts of the outer layer (Plate 2, fig. 5). However in C. variegata there are abundant pillars in both inner and outer layers. Sheets of myostracal prisms are also present in the inner layer of C. calyculata, C. marmorea and V. imbricata.

Tubules are present in all the Carditacea examined and occur in the inner layer of all species and in both layers of *Cardita variegata*.

CRASSATELLACEA

(Plate 1, figs 3, 4, 6 & 8; Plate 2, figs 3 & 4; text-figs 6 & 7)

The superfamily Crassatellacea is represented by two living families, the Crassatellidae and the Astartidae Sixteen species have been examined mineralogically and twelve optically; the shell is aragonitic throughout.

In both families the shell consists of two layers; both have an outer crossed-lamellar layer but the inner layers differ. The inner layer of the Crassatellidae is homogeneous, whereas that of the Astartidae is largely built up of myostracal-type prisms, with only traces of complex crossed-lamellar or homogeneous structures. The outer crossed-lamellar layer of all the species examined is built up from very fine primary lamels, arranged concentrically with the shell margin (Plate 1, figs 3 & 4). The lamels are obvious in the outer parts of the layer but traced inwards they

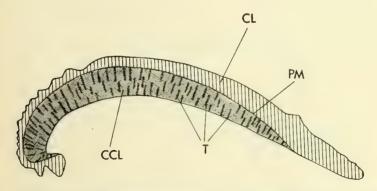


Fig. 5. Radial section of $Venericardia\ imbricata$. CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, $PM = pallial\ myostracum$, T = tubules.

become increasingly difficult to resolve and the layer appears homogeneous. Most of the hinge area is formed from crossed-lamellar structure.

The inner layer of the Crassatellidae shows no obvious macro-features other than conspicuous banding; electron-microscopy shows the structure to consist of irregular granular structure. In the Astartidae the inner layer is largely built up of myostracal prisms (Plate 1, figs 7 & 8; Plate 2, figs 2 & 3). In Astarte borealis scanning microscopy shows the outcropping prisms (Plate 2, fig. 3) revealed as distinct bosses; these show surface features of parallel ridges and striae. In A. borealis and A. incrassata there is a narrow homogeneous sheet on the inside of the pallial myostracum separating the myostracum from the main prismatic part of the inner layer. In other species the prisms arise directly from the pallial trace. There is considerable geometric selection of the prisms of the inner layer; those closest to the pallial myostracum are small and numerous but traced towards the inside of the shell there is a reduction in numbers and a resultant increase in size of the prisms.

The two shell layers are separated by the trace of the pallial myostracum. In the Crassatellidae this is marked by a distinct unconformity of growth lines but actual myostracal prisms have been detected in only one species. *Eucrassatella gibbosa* which is also the only species examined with a distinct prismatic layer associated with the adductor muscles. In the Astartidae all the species possess a prismatic myo-

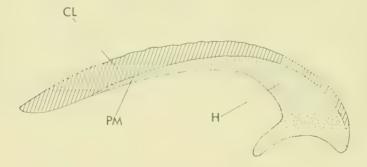


Fig. 6. Radial section of Eucrassatella gibbosa. CL = crossed-lamellar, H = homogeneous, PM = pallial myostracum.



Fig. 7. Radial section of Astarte borealis. CL = crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myo-stracum, MP = myostracal prisms.

Table 6

CARDIACEA

Observations		Observations				
Myostraca	Pallial Adductor	Myostraca	Pallial Adductor	Aragonite Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed- Indistinct Prismatic		
	Inner layer		Inner layer	Complex crossed-		
	Mineralogy Outer layer		Mineralogy Outer layer	Crossed-lamellar		
	Mineralogy		Mineralogy	Aragonite		Aragonite
	Locality		Locality		France	Seychelles Aragonite
	Species		Species	3 canthocardia aculeata	Transport of the second of the	Parvicardium sueziense (Issel)

Aragonite

Trachycardium senticosum Ecuador (Sowerby)

CARDIACEA

	Myostraca ()bservations	Adductor	Myostraca	Adductor	net Prismatic	Prismatic	the last	- 1	net –	tic — Parts of the complex crossed-lamellar layer are in continuity with the first-order lamels of the	ı		ак	[tic — A thin-shelled form, fine crossed-lamellar structure forms the hunge	— Thin myostracal bands	i, t	Prismatic Prismatic	91					
;	i	Pallial		Pallial	Indistinct	Thun, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Indistinct	Prismatic	Indistinct	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Prismatic	Tin, prismatic	Indistinct	Prismat	Thin, prismatic					
	Inner laver		Inner laver		Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed Jamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar					
	Mineralogy Outer layer		Outer laver		Crossed lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar					
	Mineralogy		Mineralogy	Č.	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragomte	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	
	Locality		Locality		Britain	Britain	Britain	Сһлпа	China		Seychelles	Dublin Bay	Jamaica	Antilles	Disco, Is. Greenland	Ecuador	Seychelles	Ecuador	Manılla	Pleistocene, Britain	Greenland	Lutetian, Dameray, France	Seychelles	
	Species		Chariae		Acanthocardia acuteata (Linnaeus)	Acanthocardia echinata (Linnaeus)	Cerastoderma edule (Linnaeus)	Fragum unedo (Linnaeus)	Hemicardia hemicardia (Linnaeus)	Laeucantiun alternatun (Sowerby)	Laevicardium australe (Sowerby)	Laevicardium crassum (Gmelin)	Laeucardum serratum (Linnaeus)	Papyridea singicula (Sowerby)	Serripes groenlandicus (Moller)	Trachycardum consors (Sowerby)	Trachycardium maeulosum (Wood)	Trigonocardia guanocostense (Hertlein & Strong)	Vasticardium incarnatum (Reeve)	Acanthocardia parkinsoni (Sowerby)	'Cardium' ciliation Fabricus	Loxocarduun obliquum (Lamarck)	Particardium sueziense (Issel)	

stracum beneath the pallial attachment, but no adductor myostracum was detected. In a recent review of the Crassatellacea (Boyd & Newell 1968) a diphyletic origin for the superfamily was suggested. Our observations on the differences between the Crassatellidae and the Astartidae would tend to support this suggestion. The features of the Permian *Oriocrassatella elongata* described as "crater-like blisters in umbonal cavity" (Boyd & Newell, 1968) appear to be cavities left by the solution of myostracal prisms in the inner layer.

CARDIACEA

(Plate 3, figs 1-4; text-fig. 8)

Fifteen species of this group have been examined structurally and twenty

mineralogically. The shell is aragonitic throughout.

Two main shell layers are present, an outer crossed-lamellar layer which forms the hinge and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer which is bounded by the trace of the pallial line. In the outer layer the first order lamels are quite large and are aligned concentrically everywhere except for the hinge (Plate 3, figs 1, 2 & 3). Transverse sections show that the strong ribbing of most species of this superfamily produces complex patterns of first order lamels in the outermost part of the outer layer. This layer becomes very thin in the umbonal area and is frequently eroded and lost. There is a prismatic pallial myostracum in most Cardiacea, (indistinct in some species) which separates the inner complex crossed-lamellar layer. In Laevicardium alternatum the inner and outer layers are in direct local contact and the blocks of laths in each layer show structural continuity. Sections cut through the adductor muscle scars of some species show lenses of myostracal prisms. Bands of myostracal prisms associated with pedal muscles were seen in the umbonal area of Trachycardium consors.

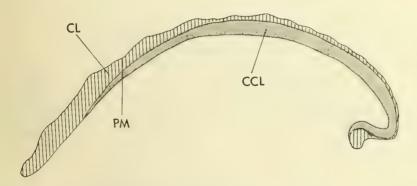


Fig. 8. Radial section of *Cerastoderma edule*. CL = crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar.

TRIDACNACEA

(Plate 3, figs 5-8; text-fig. 9)

This is a small superfamily closely related to the Cardiacea (Stasek, 1962); included genera are *Tridacna* and *Hippopus*. Four species have been examined structurally and mineralogically. The shell is wholly aragonitic.

The shell is very thick, with two shell layers, an outer crossed-lamellar layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer which is bounded in extent by the trace of the pallial line. In the outer layer the first order lamels are large (Plate 3, fig. 6) and arranged concentrically in all but the hinge area. The strong ribbing however causes an apparent complex pattern of first order lamels (Plate 3, fig. 4). There is a thin prismatic pallial myostracum in all the species examined. The inner complex crossed-lamellar layer is somewhat variable in character; in the three species of *Tridacna* studied the structural elements are fairly coarse and interleaved with thin sheets of myostracal-prisms. In *Hippopus* however the structure is very fine with an almost homogeneous appearance and with many fine prismatic sheets (Plate 3, figs 7 & 8). Higher magnifications (Plate 3, fig. 7) show that the structure consists of sheets of fine needles.

All species show very strong daily growth bands in both layers and show prismatic pedal and adductor myostraca.

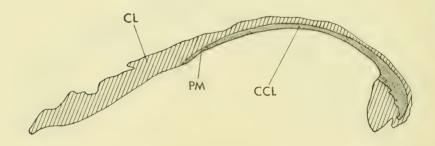


Fig. 9. Radial section of $Tridacna\ maxima$. CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL complex crossed-lamellar, $PM = pallial\ myostracum$.

TABLE 7

TRIDACNACEA

Species	Locality	Mineralogy Onter laws	Onter larger		Myostraca	ca	:
	(moor	rimoranog)	Cutci iajei	miner rayer	Pallial A	Adductor	Observations
Hippopus hippopus Linnaeus	Australia	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed-lamellar	Thin, Ti prismatic pi	Thin, Pri prismatic	Prism bands in inner layer
<i>Tridacna crocea</i> Lamarck	East Indies	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, Ti prismatic pr	Thin, Pri prismatic pec	Prism bands in inner layer, pedal myostraca
Tridacna maxima	Indian Ocean Aragonite		Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed-	Thin, Ti	Thin, Pri	Thin, Thin, Prism bands in inner layer,
Name	Locality	Mineralogy	Mineralogy Outer layer	Inner layer	Myostraca	raca	Observations
					Pallial	Adductor	
Ensis ensis (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Finely crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous, lamellate	Thin, prismatic	I	
Ensis siliqua (Linnaens)	Britain	Aragonite	Finely crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous,	Thin,	ı	
Cultellus lactuosus (Spengler)	India	Aragonite	Finely crossed- lamellar to	Homogeneous, lamellate	Thin,	I	
			homogeneous		1		
Siliqua sp.	Ecuador	Aragonite	Finely crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic	ŀ	
Solen truncata (Wood)	Ceylon	Aragonite					

TABLE 7

TRIDACNACEA

Supripe	Locality	Mineralouv	Mineralogy Outer layer	funer layer	Myostraca	Litera	Observation
		c			Pallial	Adductor	
Hippopus hippopus Australia Linnaeus	Australia	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Aragonite Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed - Thin, Thin, Prism bands in inner layer prismatic prismatic
Tudacna crocea Lamarck	East Indies		Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Aragonite Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed- Thin, Thin, Prism bands in inner layer, prismatic predal myostraca
Tridaena maxıma Röding	Indian Ocean	Aragomite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thm, prismatic	Thun, prismatic	Indian Ocean Aragonite Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed- Thin, Thin, Prism binds in niner layer, prismatic prismatic pedal myostraca
Tridacna squamosa Lamarck	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Indian Ocean Aragonite Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed- Thin, Thin, Prism bands in inner layer, prismatic prismatic pedal myostraca

TABLE 8

MACTRACEA

					Myostraca	braca.	
Name	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer	Inner layer	Pallial	Adductor	Observations
Atactodea glabrata (Gmelin)	Seychelles	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar	Thin, presmatic	Not seen	
Mactra corallina (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed-lamellar	Not seen	Not seen	
Mactra leucozonica Philippi	Philippines	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Not seen	Not seen	
Mactra producta Angas	Port Jackson Aragonite	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Indistinct, prismatic	Indistruct, prismatic	
Mactra violacea Solander	Tranquebar	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, pr-smate	Thin, prismatic	
Matronella clisea Dall	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar	Thin, prismatic	Not seen	
Mactronella exoleta (Gray)	W. America	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thm, prismatic	Not seen	
Mulina pallida Broderip & Sowerby	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic	Not seen	Thin bands of myostracal- type prisms in the inner layer
Raeta undulata (Gould)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar	Thin, prismatic	Thin, prismatic	Thin bands of myostracal- type prisms in the inner layer
Spisula solida (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar	Thin, prismatic	Not seen	Inner layer very fine, with sheets of myostracal-type prisms. Pedal myostraca visible beneath umbo
Cardilia martini (Deshayes)	Indian Ocean	Aragonite					
Mactroderma velata Philippi	Ecuador	Aragonite					

TABLE 9

SOLENACEA

					Myos	Myostraca	
Name	Locality	Mmeralogy	Mmeralogy Outer layer	Inner layer	Pallial	Adductor	Observation
Ensis ensis (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Finely crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous, Lemellate	Thin, prismatic	1	
Ensis siliqua (Linnaens)	Britain	Aragomte	Finely crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous, lamellate	Thin, prismatic	1	
Cullellus lactuosus (Spengler)	India	Aragonite	Finely crossed- lamellar to homogeneous	Homogeneous, lamellate	Thin, prismatic	1	
Sulqua sp.	Ecuador	Aragonite	Finely crossed- lamellar	Emely crossed: Complex crossed: Thun, lamellar lamellar prisma	Thin, prismatic		
Solen truncata (Wood)	Ceylon	Aragonite					

MACTRACEA

(Plate 4, figs 1 & 2; text-fig. 10)

Thirteen species have been examined mineralogically and ten structurally. The shell is entirely aragonite.

There are two shell layers in all species examined, an outer crossed-lamellar layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer bounded by the pallial myostracum. In the outer layer, the first order lamels are arranged concentrically and in this superfamily are characteristically very fine (Plate 4, fig. 2). The layer is usually very thin and worn in the umbonal region but forms most of the hinge. In Spisula solida the crossed-lamellae are finer than in most other species and appear homogeneous in the inner parts of the layer. The inner layer of this species also has a very fine structure and sheets of myostracal prisms are present. These sheets also occur in Raeta undulata. The separation of the two layers is sharp (Plate 4, fig. 1) but the pallial myostracum is thin and indistinct in most species. The adductor myostraca are also poorly defined.

SOLENACEA

(Plate 4, fig. 3)

Seven species have been examined mineralogically and four structurally. The shell is aragonitic throughout. Two main shell layers are present, an outer crossed-lamellar layer which forms the hinge and an inner homogeneous layer bounded by the trace of the pallial line. In the outer crossed-lamellar layer the first order lamels are very fine and arranged concentrically to the shell margin over most of the shell. Locally this layer may appear homogeneous. A very thin prismatic pallial myostracum, best developed below the umbo is present in all species. The inner layer of all the examples appears homogeneous with a striking lamellate appearance. Electron-microscopy of the inner layer of *Ensis siliqua* shows that the apparent homogeneous layer is in fact built up from layers of very fine complex crossed-lamellar structure (Plate 4, fig. 3) which alternate with bands of fibrous appearance which may be organic matrix. Etching reveals the presence of a reticulum of organic matrix sandwiched between carbonate laths.

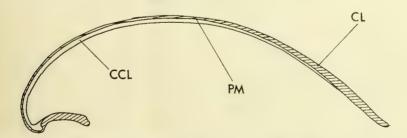


Fig. 10. Radial section of $Mactronella\ exoleta$. CL=crossed-lamellar, $CCL=complex\ crossed-lamellar$, $PM=pallial\ myostracum$.

TELLINACEA

(Plate 4, figs 4, 5 & 6; Plate 5, figs 1-7; Text-figs 11-15)

Thirty-one species have been examined mineralogically and twenty-four optically. The shell is totally argonite.

Most of the species we have examined have three layered shells (Plate 4, fig. 4), with an outer composite prismatic layer, a middle crossed-lamellar layer and an inner layer which may be made of complex crossed-lamellar or homogeneous structures. The inner layer is, as usual, bounded by the pallial trace. In Egeria radiata, Florimetis corrugata, Psammotea radiata, Macoma balthica, Tellidora burneti and two species of Solenotellina, there are however only two shell layers, an outer crossed-lamellar layer and an inner, complex crossed-lamellar layer which is bounded by the trace of the pallial line. Trueman (1942) described a three layered shellin Tellinatenuis.

The outer composite prismatic layer of three layered species is usually very thin and is frequently worn away from the umbonal area. It consists of horizontal first order prisms, arranged radially from the umbo. Each prism is built up of fine needle-like second order prisms (Plate 4, figs 5 & 6) which are arranged in the characteristic divergent feathery pattern seen in longitudinal section. This layer is at its thickest development in the Donacidae and Semelidae, where the arrangement of first and second order prisms is very clear. The Donacidae develop strong internal marginal denticles with a resultant thickening of the outer shell layer (as in the Nuculidae).

The middle layer of three layered shells and the outer layer of two layered shells is built of crossed-lamellar structure with rather fine concentrically arranged first order lamels (Plate 4, fig. 4; Plate 5, fig. 3). This layer forms the hinge in all species examined.

The inner layer of most species examined is built of complex crossed-lamellar structure (Plate 5, figs 5 & 6) although as in the Solenacea the fabric is so fine as to appear homogeneous under light microscopy (Plate 5, fig. 7). Electron-microscopy reveals that this is very fine complex crossed-lamellar structure. In some species *Quidnipagus palatam*, *Asaphis deflorata*, and *Psammotea radiata* thin prismatic sheets are developed. In *Semele tortuosa* these occupy most of the inner layer (Plate 5, figs 1 & 2). The inner layer is also often markedly lamellate caused by the presence of thick sheets of protein matrix which presumably account for the flexibility of these shells.

Most species possess a thin prismatic pallial myostracum (Plate 5, fig. 2) although this may be indistinct in some and marked only by a sharp break in growth lines. Sections through adductor muscle scars reveal pads of myostracal prisms whilst thin prismatic bands of the trace pedal muscle attachment were seen beneath the hinge line in *Psammotea occidens*, *Solenotellina diphos*, and *Tellina calcarina*.

A 'so called' new shell layer called the mosaicostracum has been recognized in the Tellinacea on the basis of surface morphology by Hamilton (1969). We are uncertain how this relates to the layers recognized herein.

We have examined the fine structure of Scmele tortuosa, Donax faba, hecuba scortum, Tellina radiata, Quidnipagus palatam, Asaphis deflorata and Scutarcopagia scobinata.

TABLE IO

TELLINACEA

0100000	Observations	Composite Crossed- Complex crossed- Prismatic Prismatic Inner layer fine, banded prismatic lamellar lamellar		Inner layer lamellate	Inner layer lamellate
traca	Adductor	Prismatic	I	1	1
Myostraca	Pallial	Prismatic	Prismatic	Prismatic	Prismatic
Inner	layer	Complex crossed- lamellar	Composite Crossed- Complex crossed- Prismatic prismatic lamellar lamellar	Composite Crossed- Homogeneous/ prismatic lamellar complex crossed- lamellar	Composite Crossed- Complex crossed- Prismatic prismatic lamellar lamellar
Middle	layer	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- lamellar	Crossed- Complex lamellar lamellar
Outer			Composite prismatic	Composite prismatic	Composite prismatic
Wineralogy Outer	600000000000000000000000000000000000000	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite
Locality		Seychelles	Ecuador	Brisbane	Indian Ocean
Name		Asaphis deflorata (Linnaeus)	Donax asper Hanley	Donax epidermia Lamarck	Tellinella virgata Linnaeus

		,
Sowerby)	The following species are all aragonitic:—	Donax denticulatus W. Indies

Inner layer lamellate

Homogeneous

Crossed-

Aragonite

Mazaltan

Tellidora burneti (Broderip &

Ecuador Donax transversus Linnaeus Sowerby

Italy Gastrana fragilis (Linnaeus)

Seychelles Ecuador Scissulina dispar (Conrad)

Ecuador Solecurtus broggi Pilsbry & Olsson

Strigilla carinaria (Linnaeus) TABLE 10

TELLINACEA

N	focaliter	Minorologe	Outtor	Middle	T Company	Myostraca	гаса	
Manic	-coams	ramer and g	layer	layer	layer	Pallial	Adductor	Observations
Asaphis deflorata (Linnaeus)	Seychelles	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic	Prismatic	Inner layer fine, banded
Donax asper Hanley	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic	ſ	
Donas epidermia Lamarck	Brisbane	Aragonite	Composite	Crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous/ complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic	1	Inner layer lamellate
Donax faba Gmelin	Swan River, Australia	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic	1	
Donas viltatus (da Costa)	Britain	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous/ complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic		Inner layer lamellate
Egeria radiata (Lamarck)	S Nigeria	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar	1	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic	1	
Florimelts corrugala (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar		Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic		Tubules? in inner layer
Hecuba scortom (Linnaeus)	S Africa	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous		Ī	Lamellate unner layer
Macoma balthua (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar	1	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic	1	
Psammotea occidens Deshayes	Philippines	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous	Prismatic	ı	Inner layer lamellate
Psammotea radiata (Plulippi)	Seychelles	Aragonite	Crossed-	1	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic	1	Prism bands in inner layer
Quidnipagas palatam Iredale	Seychelles	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic	ı	
Scrobicularia magna (Spengler)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismitie		
Scutancopagna linguafelis (Linnaeus)	Antilles	Aragonite	Composite	Crossed-	Homogeneous	1		Inner layer lameflate
Sculancopagia scobinala (Linnaeus)	Queensland	Aragomte	Composite	Crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous			Ioner layer lamellate
Semele tortnosa (C. B. Adams)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed lamellar	Prismatic	I	Very thick pulled myostracum
Semele sp	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lanellar	Homogeneous	ı	1	Lamellate inner layer
Solecurius strigil- latus Blainville	Mediter- ranean	Composite	Composite	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed lamellar			Inner layer lamellate
Solenotellina diphos (Sowerby)	India	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar		Complex crossed. lamellar	Prismatic		Thin prism bands in inner liver, pedal myostraca beneath umbo
Solenoh llina binadiata (Wood)	Swan River, Australia	Aragonite	Crossed- lamellar		Complex crossed- lamellar	Pusmatn	Prismatic	Inner layer lamellate
Macoma calcarea (Gmelin)	Greenland	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prismatic	1	Prism bands present in inner layer beneath hinge
Tellina radiata Linnaeus	W. Indies	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed- lamellar	Homogeneous	1		Inner layer lamellate
Tellimilla vingati Linnaeus	Indian Ocean	Magonite	(omposite prismatis	Crossed- Lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar	Prism dr		Inner layer lamellate
Tellidora burneti (Broderip & Sowerby)	Mazaltan	Vragonite	Crossed		Homogeneous			Inner layer lamellate
The following species are all aragonities	s are all arago	mtic:—						

The following species are all arago Linnaeus
Linnaeus
Linnaeus
Linnaeus
Sowerby
Gastana fuszits
(Linnaeus)
Soissulma dispar
(Lonad)
Soleteurius broggs
Pilsbyx & Olsson
Ecnador
(Linnaeus)
(Linnaeus)

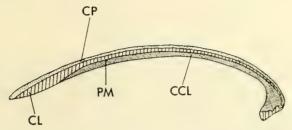


Fig. 11. Radial section of *Donax faba*. CP = composite prismatic, CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum.

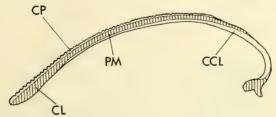


Fig. 12. Radial section of *Hecuba scortum*. CP = composite prismatic, CL = crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar.



Fig. 13. Detail of a radial section of *Hecuba scortum* showing alignment of crystallites in the outer composite prismatic layer (CP), and of lamellae in the middle crossed-lamellar layer (CL).

Fig. 14. Radial section of *Macoma balthica*. CL — crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum.

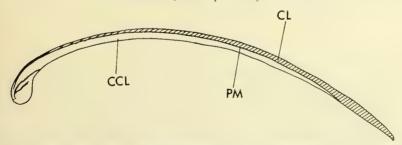


Fig. 15. Radial section of Solenotellina sipho. CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum.

GAIMARDIACEA

(Plate 6, figs 5 & 6)

Only one species was examined from this small superfamily, it is aragonitic. Gaimardia trapezina (Lamarck) from Tierra del Fuego has a two layered shell. Both layers are made up of homogenous structure; the constituent crystallites are very small about 0.5 μ in diameter and have irregular rounded outlines so that the structure appears granular (Plate 6, figs 5 & 6). The two layers are separated by a thin prismatic pallial myostracum.

ARTICACEA

Four species of this group have been examined structurally and six mineralogically. The shell is entirely aragonitic but there is some variation of structure within the superfamily.

In *Trapezium* and *Coralliophaga* there is an outer crossed-lamellar layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer bounded by the trace of the pallial line. The primary lamels of the outer layer are very coarse and are arranged concentrically to the shell margin; this layer also forms the hinge. There is a thin prismatic pallial myostracum dividing the layers.

In Arctica islandica there are two shell layers, but in contrast to the other members of the family, both layers are built of homogeneous structure. The two layers are separated by an extremely fine prismatic pallial myostracum along which there is a distinct break in growth lines and shell layering. Details of the fine structure of the homogeneous structure were given in Taylor et al (1969).

A specimen of Calyptogena ponderosa, a member of the problematical family the Vesicomyidae was examined. Members of this family exhibit certain similarities with both the Veneracea and the Arcticacea, Boss (1968). The shell structure consists of two homogeneous layers and in this respect resembles the Arcticacea more than any other superfamily and is thus placed here for convenience. A similar conclusion was reached by Oberling & Boss (1970).

DREISSENACEA

(Plate 6, fig. 3; Text-fig. 16)

This is a small group of byssate freshwater bivalves of which we have examined one species structurally and three mineralogically. The shell is aragonitic.

In *Dreissena polymorpha* an outer crossed-lamellar layer (Plate 6, fig. 3) and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer are present; the former forms most of the hinge. The layers are separated by a thin prismatic pallial myostracum. The primary lamels of the outer layer are arranged concentrically.

TABLE II

ARCTICACEA

Name	Locality	Mineralom	Mineralogy Outer layer	Torson Torson	Myos	Myostraca	
	-coaura	Sometime and Sometime	Outer layer	muci layer	Pallial	Adductor	Observations
Coralliophaga coralliophaga (Gmelin)	Mollucas)	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	ar Complex crossed- lamellar	ed- Prismatic	I	
Trapezium oblongum (Linnaeus)	Indian Ocean	n Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	ar Complex crossed- lamellar	ed- Prismatic	1	
Calyptogena ponderosa Boss	G. of Mexico	Aragonite	Homogeneous	Homogeneous		ŀ	
Arctica islandica (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Homogeneous	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic	Indistinct	Thin prismatic bands in inner layer. Prominently
				V		very	very regular columns, as in the
Corbicula occidens Deshayes	India	Aragonite	Finely crossed- lamellar	Complex-crossed- Indistinct lamellar	Indistinct	Lim	Limopsacea Inner layer as above
Corbicula sp.	Lake Nyanza	Aragonite	-passo.	Complex crossed-	Indistinct	Inne	Inner layer as above
Cyrena inflata Say	Nicaragua	Aragonite	Finely crossed-	crossed-	Thin,	The	The pallial myostracum is
Polymesoda anomala (Deshayes)	Ecuador	Aragonite	rossed-	Complex crossed- lamellar	prismanc Thin, prismatic	disco — Thin prisn	discontinuous Thin sheets of myostracal-type prisms are present in the inner
les	Mangalore, India	Aragonite]	Finely crossed- (Complex crossed-	Indistinct	layer — Inner	layer Inner layer as in C. Auminea
Corbicula cordata (Morris)	Sparnacian, Britain	Aragonite		ancina i			
Corbicula cuneiformis (Sowerby)	Sparnacian, Britain	Argonite					
Cyrena consobrina (Cailliaud)		Aragonite					

Aragonite

Notts., England

Pisidium amnicum Müller

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	Observations				Thin prismatic bands in unner layer Prominently	banded			Observations	Outer layer forms lunge						Observations	Many prism bands in inner		Prism bands in inner layer					Observations	The complex-crossed lamellar layer shows laths arranged in very regular columns, as in the	Imopearea Inner layer as above	Inner layer as above	The pallial myostracum is	Thin sheets of myostracal-type prisms are present in the inner layer	Inner layer as in C. fluminea				
	A 3 3	Adductor		ı	Indistinct				raca	,						Adductor	itic .		Thin, Pris prismatic					Į		Inner	Inner	The pa	Thin sl prisms	[nner]				
Marcietuses	neyosiii	atic	atic		atre				Iyost	21					Manageman	Add	Thin, prisma						200	Addu. for	1	- 1	1	1	Ī	1				
	To the		ed- Prismatic		Thin, prismatic				Pallial						77	Pallial	Thin, presmatic		Thin, prismatic	Thm,	prismatic		Myostraca	Pathal	Indistinct	Indistinct	Indistinct	Thin,	Thin, prismatic	Indistinct				
ARCTICACEA	Inner layer	Complex crossed-	Complex crossed-	Homogeneous	Homogeneous			TABLE 12 DREISSENACEA	Inner layer	Complex crossed- lamellar				E 13	ACEA	Inner layer	Complex crossed- lamellar with	bands of myostracal type prisms	Complex crossed- lamellar with	bands of myostracal-type prisms Complex crossed-	lamellar structure	3 14	CORBICULACEA	Inner layer	Complex crossed- I	Complex-crossed- I			crossed-	Complex crossed- In				
RCTI	La C	mellar	mellar	sons	Snoa			TABLE 12	k	mellar				TABLE 13	GLOSSACEA	In	S = .	my	. 3 4		larr	TABLE 14	RBICL	Inne		Com	Com							
<	Outer layer	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous	Homogeneous			PA	Outer layer	Crossed-lamellar					Ü	Outer layer	Homogeneous		Homogeneous	Crossed-lamellar			[00	Outer layer	Finely crossed- lamellar	Finely crossed-	Finely crossed-	Finely crossed-	Finely crossed- lamellar	Finely crossed-				
	Mineralogy	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	mrte		Mineralogy	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite																				Ø2	ð.
	Mine	Arag			Arag	Arag	Argonite		Mine	Arag	Arag	Arag	Arag			Mineralogy	Aragonite		Aragonite	Aragonite				Mineralogy	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Argonite	Aragonite	Aragonite
	Locality	Mollucas	Indian Ocean	G. of Mexico	Britain	Tertiary, Thanetian, Britain	Cretaceous, Albian, Britain		Locality	Notts., England	Bessarabia	Nigeria Forene	Eocene, Britain			Locality	Isle of Man		Pleistocene Italy	Japan				Locality	Japan	India	Lake /	rg g	Ecuador	Mangalore, A India		Sparnacian, A		Notts., England
	Name	Covalltophaga (Gmelin)	Trapezium oblongum (Linnaeus)	Calyptogena ponderosa Boss	Arctica islandıca (Linnaeus)	Arctica plana (Sowerby)	Arctica cordiformis (Sowerby)		Species	Dreissena polymorpha (Pallas)	Dressena polymorpha (Pallas)	Dreissena africana van Beneden	Dreissena oranati			Species	Glossus humanus (Linnaeus)		Glossus humanus (Linnaeus)	Merocardia lamarekti	(Keeve)			Species	Corbicula fluminea (Lamarck)	Corbrenta occudens Deshayes		Cyrena inflata Say	Polymesoda anomula (Deshayes)	Velentia exprimendes (Gray)	cordata	Condicula cimeiformis (Soweiby)		

GLOSSACEA

(Plate 6, fig. 1)

Two species of this very small superfamily have been examined structurally and mineralogically. The shell consists of aragonite.

In Glossus humanus there is an outer layer which is largely homogeneous and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer which is bounded by the trace of the pallial line. In some specimens and in some parts of the shell there is a faint vertical structure similar to crossed-lamellar structure (Plate 6, fig. 1). The inner layer is built of rather fine lamels and in all specimens there are many thin sheets of myostracal prisms. In very old individuals where the inner layer is thick these prism sheets become abundant and closely spaced; in some irregularities develop and spherulite patterns appear in some sections. This is probably due to the development of corrugations upon the accretionary surface.

In *Meiocardia lamarckii* there is an outer crossed-lamellar layer in which the lamels are distinct and arranged concentrically; within this there is an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer bounded by a thin prismatic pallial myostracum.

CORBICULACEA

(Plate 6, figs 2 & 4)

Six species of this superfamily have been examined structurally and ten mineralogically. The shell is totally aragonite.

Again two shell layers are present, an outer crossed-lamellar layer which forms the hinge and teeth and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer bounded by the trace of the pallial line. In the outer layer the lamels are rather fine and arranged concentrically (Plate 6, fig. 4). In most forms no prismatic pallial myostracum is visible only a dense granular zone separating the layers. Prisms are however detectable in *Polymesoda* and *Velorita cyprinoides*. The inner complex crossed-lamellar layer is always built of rather coarse laths, and in all species of *Corbicula* examined and in *Velorita* these are arranged in columns as in the Limopascea (Taylor *et al*, 1969). Tubules were seen in *Pisidium amnicum*.

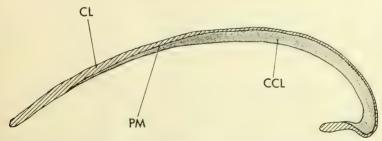


Fig. 16. Radial section of *Dreissena polymorpha*. CL — crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum.

VENERACEA

(Plate 7, figs 1-5; Plate 8, figs 1-5; Text-figs 17-22)

This superfamily includes a large number of extant genera and species, consequently we have examined over fifty species structurally and mineralogically. The shell is aragonitic in all species. Both Boggild (1930) and Oberling (1964) stated that the distribution of shell structure types is highly variable, thus in order to ascertain if there is any systematic variation we have listed and discussed the species examined at family and sub-family level. (Table 15).

The shell structural variations found are indeed more variable than any other superfamily. The various combinations are shown diagrammatically in Text-fig. 17. The apparently most important structural distinction is that between species having an outer composite prismatic layer and those without. The other variations exhibited between crossed-lamellar, complex crossed-lamellar and homogeneous structures almost always show transitions and all gradations between these structures may be found.

There is thus in many species a basically three layered shell consisting of an outer composite prismatic layer, a middle crossed-lamellar/homogeneous layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar/homogeneous layer. In most other species the shell is basically two layered with an outer crossed-lamellar/homogeneous layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar/homogeneous layer.

The composite prismatic layer consists of radially aligned primary units made up of smaller crystallites radiating from a central axis (Plate 7, figs 1–5). Each of these smaller crystallites may be several mm. in length and 40 μ in diameter, but the size varies greatly from species to species. Each of these crystallites is surrounded by a sheath of organic matrix. Closer examination shows that each of the larger crystallites

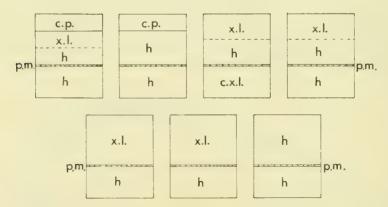


Fig. 17. Diagram showing the main types of shell layering found in the Veneracea. $CP = composite \ prisms$, CL = crossed-lamellar, $CCL = complex \ crossed-lamellar$, H = homogeneous, $PM = pallial \ myostracum$.

TABLE 15

			VENERACEA			
Species	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer	Middle layer	Inner layer	Pallial myostracum
Venerinae:						
Venus alata (Reeve)	Italy	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Venus striatula (da Costa)	Italy	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar thin, becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
			0			
Hysteroconcha dione (Linnaeus)	West Indies	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar homogeneous inwards	I	Homogeneous	Prismatic
Hysteroconcha multispinosa Ecuador (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar		Complex crossed- lamellar/homogeneous	ıs
Lamelliconcha paytensis (d'Orbigny)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	-	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic
Lioconcha asperrima (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous/ complex crossed-lamellar	Thin, prismatic
Lioconcha castrensis (Linnaeus)	Queensland	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar/ becoming homogeneous inwards	ľ	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic
Macrocallista squalida (Sowerby)		Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	1	Homogeneous	
Pitar affinis (Gmelin)	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	I	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Pitar sp.	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	1	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic

			TABLE 15 VENERACEA			
Species	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer	Middle layer	Inner layer	Palhal myostracum
Venerinae: Venus alata (Reeve)	Italy	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar becoming homogeneous unwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Venus stratula (da Costa)	Italy	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar thin, becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Venus subimbi icata Sowerby	Central America	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Venus verrucosa Linnaeus	Naples & Britain	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Cucomplialus plucata (Gmelin)	West Africa	Aragonite	Finely crossed-lamellar becoming homogeneous inwards	I	Ilomogeneous	Indistinct
Periglypia reticulata (Linnaeus) Circinae:	Torres Str.	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	Complex crossed- lamellar with lenses of myostracal prisms	Prismatic
Circe crocea Gray	Red Sea	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar/ homogeneous inwards	ı	Homogeneous	Indistinct
Circe intermedia (Reeve)	Aden	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar/ homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous	Thm, prismatic
Circe scripta (Linnaeus)	Indo-Pacific	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar/ homogeneous inwards	ı	Complex crossed- lamellar, prism sheets	Prismatic ts
Gafrarium duanteatum (Gmelin)	East Indies	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar/ homogeneous inwards		Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal prisms	Prismatic
Gafrarum pectinatam (Linnacus)	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar homogeneous mwards		Complex crossed lamellar with myostraeal prisms	Prismatic
Gafrarum tumidiem Bolten	Seychelles	Aragonite	Crossed lamellar/ bomogeneous inwards		Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal prisms	Prismatic
Gouldia australis Angas Gouldia cenna Gray Sunnetinae:	Australia Bermuda	Aragonite Aragonite	Finely crossed-lamellar Finely crossed-lamellar	1 1	Homogeneous	
Sunetta solanderi (Gray) Meretricinae:	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Radial crossed-lamellar/ passing into homogeneous inwards	I	Homogeneous	Prismatic
Merchix dillayni Reeve	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Finely crossed-lamellar homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous	Prismatic
Truela hians (Phillips)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Homogeneous	Homogeneous	Prismatic, indistinct
Twela ponderosa Koch	Aden	Aragonite	Corossed lamellar homogeneous inwards	I	Homogeneous	
Agriopoma catharra Dall	Ecuador	Aragonite	Finely crossed-lamellar becoming homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous/ complex crossed-lamellar	Indistinct, presuntic
Amiantis erycina (Linnaeus)	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Finely-crossed lamellar homogeneous inwards	1	Homogeneous	
Hysteroconcha dione (Linnaeus)	West Indies	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous	Prematic
Hysteroconcha multispinosa (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar		Complex crossed- lamellar,homogeneon	٥
Lamelliconcha paytensıs (d'Orbigny)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed lamellar		Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, presented
Lioconcha asperrima (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar	Homogeneous/ complex crossed-lamellar	Ihm, prismatic
Lioconcha castrensis (Linnaeus)	Queensland	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar/ becoming homogeneous inwards	Į.	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic
Macrocallista squalida (Sowerby)		Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	ı	Homugeneous	
Pitar affinis (Gmelin)	Indian Ocean	Aragonite.	Crossed-lamellar		Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Pitar sp.	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar		Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic

TABLE 15 Continued

Species	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer	Middle layer	Inner layer	Pallial mvostracum
Dosininae: Dosinia sp.	S. Carolina	Aragonite	Composite prisms	Crossed-lamellar becoming homogeneous	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic
Dosinia annae Carpenter	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, homogeneous inwards	Complex crossed-	Thin, prismatic
Dosinia ponderosa (Gray)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, homogeneous inwards	Complex crossed- lamellar	Thin, prismatic
Mercenaria mercenaria (Linnaeus)	England	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar,	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Petricolidae:				nomogeneous inwards		
Petricola denticulata Sowerby	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	I	Complex crossed-	Thin,
Petricola pholadiformis Lamarck	Britain	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	1	Complex crossed-	prismanc Thin,
Petricola lithophaga (Retzius)	Mediterranean Aragonite	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	I	Complex crossed-	prismatic
Cooperellidae:					lamenar	
Cooperella subdiaphana Carpenter	California	Aragonite	Homogeneous	1	Homogeneous	
Species	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer	Middle layer	Inner layer	Pallial myostracum

TABLE 15 Continued

			IABLE 15 Commune	g.		
Species	Locality	Mmeralogy	Outer layer	Middle laver	Inner laver	Palhal myöstras um
Dosininae . <i>Оомина</i> sp.	S Carolina	Aragonite	Composite prisms	Crossed-lamellar becoming bonogeneous inwards	Complex crossed lamellar	Thm, prismatic
Dosima annue Carpenter	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismate	(rossed lamellar, homogeneous mwards	Complex crossed- Lanellar	Thin, prismatic
Dostma ponderosa (Gray)	Ecuador	Aragomte	Composite prism ctic		Complex crossed- lumellar	Thin, prismatic
Cyclininae: Cyclina chinensis (Bolten)		Aragomite	Crossed lamellar, radial on outside, concentric inwards	1	Complex crossed	Thim, prismatic
Gemmnae; Gemma gemma (Totten)	VSA	Агадопце	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	1	Homogeneous	
Tapetinae: Paphia textilis (Linnaeus)	China	Aragonite	Emely crossed lamellar	1	Complex crossed-	Prismatic
Tapes litterala (Lunnaeus)	Indian Ocean	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	1	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Venerupis crenata (Lamarck)	Port Jackson	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed Lamellar becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatu
Anomalosardia braziliana (Gmelin)	Brazil	Aragonite	Composite prismita	Crossod-lamellar, two oming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Chrone statchburya (Gray)	New Zealand	Aragomte	Crossed-lamellar/ homogeneous inwards		Complex crossed lamellar/homogeneo	Prismate us
Chone granulata (Gmelin)	West Indies	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous	Homogeneous	Thin, presentate
Chrone paphia (Linnseus)	West Indies	Aragomte	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Prsmatie
Chone undatella Sowerby	California	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar/ becoming homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous	Thun, prismatic
Chrone subrugosa Sowerby	Ecuador	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Phin, prismatic
Chonopsis guida (Sowerby & Broderty)	Ecuador	Aragomte	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar/ becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismatic
Livophora esfosa (Bivona)	Maderra	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar becoming homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous	Thin, prismatu
Livophora peruviana (Sowerby)	Peru	Aragonite	Crossed lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards		Homogeneous/ complex crossed lamellar	ibm, prismatu
Perothaca jedoensis (Lischke)	Japan	Aragonite	Composite prismatic	Crossed-lamellar, homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, prismate
Mercenaria mercenaria (Linnaeus)	England	Vragomite	Composite prismatic	(rossed lamellar, becoming homogeneous inwards	Homogeneous	Thin, presmate
Petricolidae.	£	Versemente	research investor		Complex crossed-	Thin,
Sowerby	Ecuados	on against			Lemellar	prismatic
Petricola phyladiformis Lamarck	Britain	Viagonite	Crossed-lamellar		SO.	prismatic
Petricia l.th. phaga (Retzius)	Mediterran an	Magomte	Cross Alamella		Complex cross de Lenellar	
Cooperellidae Corportla subtrablana Carponter	(alit ans i	Aragomte	Homogeneous		Ifomogeneous	
Species	Locality	Miner dogy	Outer layer	Madole Layer	Inner Liver	Pullal myostra am

is made up of further smaller units about 0.5 μ in diameter and diverging in a feathery manner from the central axis of the larger crystallites (Plate 7, fig. 4).

The outer layer is separated by various degrees of distinctiveness from the underlying crossed-lamellar layer which has concentrically aligned primary lamels (Plate 7, fig. 1). This middle layer changes to homogeneous structure when traced towards the shell interior. In some species the distinctly crossed-lamellar portion of the layer is almost entirely suppressed (Plate 7, fig. 2). The crossed-lamellar and homogeneous portions of the shell cannot be designated as separate layers for they vary in extent both between and within a species.

In two layered Veneracea the outer part of the outer layer consists of crossed-lamellar structure (Plate 8, figs 2 & 4) which passes transitionally inwards into homogeneous structure (Plate 8, fig. 3). The orientation of the lamels in the outer layer is controlled by the type of shell margin present in each species. In the Veneracea the marginal areas are variable with margins which are reflected, inflected, shelf-like or combinations of these. A further complication to the shape of the margin may be ribbing and strong concentric sculpture. With a reflected shell margin the first order lamels in the outer region of the outer shell layer lie

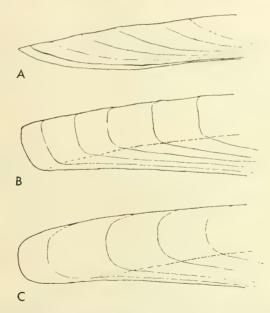


Fig. 18. Diagram showing radial sections of three types of shell margin found in the Veneracea. A. Here the margin is slightly reflected; there will be a gradual change from crossed-lamellar structure on the outside to homogeneous structure inwards.
B. In this case the margin is strongly reflected and in the position marked by the dotted line there will be a sharp structural change.
C. The margin is even more strongly reflected than in B and similarly there will be a sharp change in structure along the dotted line.

subparallel to the outer shell surface, although at the time of secretion, they were aligned normal to the secreting surface. With an inflected shell margin (Text-fig. 18) the first order lamels retain more of a concentric alignment. Again, when traced towards the shell interior the crossed-lamellae pass into homogeneous structure. The point at which the change takes place is usually where the reflection or inflection of growth lines changes rapidly. Further inwards from these points the growth increment lines are much more closely bunched suggesting a slower growth rate. The change from crossed-lamellar structure to homogeneous can thus be interpreted as a result of differential growth rates imposed by geometrical constraints caused by the shape of the shell margin.

In all cases the inner shell layer consists of complex crossed-lamellar or homogeneous structures or combinations of the two. Sheets of myostracal prisms are

also common.

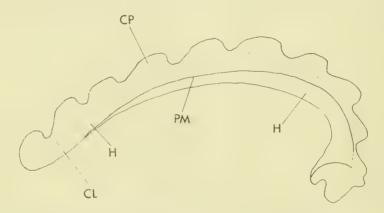


Fig. 19. Radial section of *Chione subrugosa*. CP = composite prismatic, <math>CL = crossed-lamellar, h = homogeneous, PM = pallial myostracum.

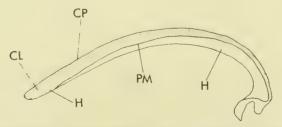


Fig. 20. Radial section of *Chamalea striatula*. CP = composite prisms, CL = crossed-lamellar, H = homogeneous, PM = pallial myostracum.

Subfamily VENERINAE

Most species in this group possess the three layered shell; composite prisms, crossed-lamellar/homogeneous and with one exception an inner homogeneous layer. Two species have only two layered shells. In *Periglypta puerpera* the inner layer is largely constructed of myostracal prisms with small areas of complex crossed-lamellar structure.

Subfamily CIRCINAE

All species in this group have the basic two layered shell. In most species there is a well defined prismatic pallial myostracum. The inner layer is variable; in the species of *Gafrarium* examined it is largely made up of myostracal prisms with small amounts of complex crossed-lamellar structure. In most other species it is homogeneous.

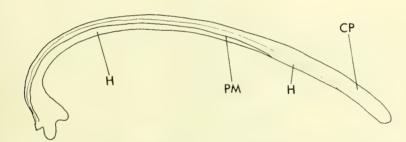


FIG. 21. Radial section of *Tivela hians*. CP = composite prisms, H = homogeneous, PM = pallial myostracum.

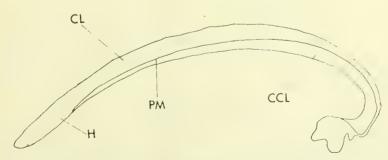


Fig. 22. Radial section of *Lioconcha castrensis*. CL = crossed-lamellar, H = homogeneous, PM = pallial myostracum, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar.

Subfamily SUNNETINAE

In Sunetta solanderi the margin is strongly reflected and the structure consists of outer crossed-lamellar structure, with the lamels radially aligned, which pass inwards into homogeneous structure. The inner layer is homogeneous with thin sheets of myostracal prisms.

Subfamily MERETRICINAE

In *Tivela hians* there is a three layered shell with the middle layer consisting entirely of homogeneous structure and also a homogeneous inner layer. *Tivela ponderosa* and *Meretrix* have a two layered shell.

Subfamily PITARINAE

Most of this family have a two layered shell but in *Lioconcha asperrima* there is an outer composite prismatic layer.

Subfamily **DOSININAE**

The three species examined in this group, all have a three layered shell, with an outer composite prismatic, a middle crossed-lamellar/homogeneous and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer. A similar three layered shell has been described from *Dosinia japonica* by Kobayashi (1966).

Subfamily CYCLININAE

The one species examined has a two layered shell.

Subfamily **GEMMINAE**

Both species examined have a two layered shell.

Subfamily TAPETINAE

In Tapes litterata and Venerupis there is a three layered shell but only two layers in Paphia textilis.

Subfamily CHIONINAE

Both three and two layered shells are found in this family and the variation may be found within species of one genus. In *Mercenaria mercenaria* the crossed-lamellar portion of the middle layer is often indistinct but the structure is revealed by electron microscopy. Most species have an inner homogeneous layer.

Subfamily PETRICOLIDAE

This group has two layered shells; in the outer layer the crossed-lamellar structure does not grade inwards into homogeneous structure, as in most other Veneracea.

Subfamily COOPERELLIDAE

In the one species examined both layers consisted of homogeneous structure.

Order MYOIDA

MYACEA

(Plate 11, fig. 4; Text-figs 23-25)

Six species have been examined structurally and twelve mineralogically. The shell is aragonitic. The superfamily divides naturally into two groups the Corbulidae and the Myidae, these are discussed in turn.

In the family Corbulidae the shell is inaequivalve, the left valve being the smaller. The outermost part of the left valve consists solely of periostracum which fits like a flap against the right valve when the shell is closed (Yonge, 1946). In both valves, the periostracum may line the inner margin of the shell for some distance in preserved specimens. Two main shell layers are present, an outer crossed-lamellar layer which forms most of the hinge and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer which is bounded by the trace of the pallial line. In the outer layer the lamels are arranged concentrically to the shell margin. In adult specimens where the growth rate is slower, marginal thickening has taken place and the periostracal flaps and extensions are frequently incorporated into the shell proper, by subsequent deposition. The periostracal flap of the left valve may even become incorporated into the shell of the right valve.

In most species there is a well developed pallial myostracum and within this there is the inner shell layer of complex crossed-lamellar structure which is fairly coarse. In all species there are commonly sheets of myostracal prisms interbedded with the normal structure. In *Corbula crassa* and *C. tunicata* there are well developed myostracal pillars arising from the trace of the pallial line.

In addition to the marginal periostracal flaps the animal appears capable of laying periostracum-like material down as a sheet, over all the inner surface of the shell. In some species, this happens several times in the life of the animal (Text-fig. 25).

In the family Myidae a rather different arrangement is seen, there being three distinct shell layers. There is an outer homogeneous layer, a middle crossed-lamellar layer and within the pallial line an inner layer which consists of either complex crossed-lamellar or homogeneous structures. The outer layer consists of granular crystals (Plate II, fig. 4) about 5 μ in length and 2.5 μ in diameter with no obvious crystal form but with a slight elongation towards the shell margin. Although this layer is called homogeneous it differs from all other homogeneous

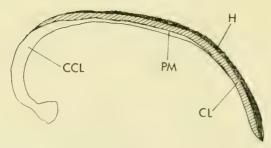


Fig. 23. Radial section of *Platydon cancellata*. H = homogeneous, CL = crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar.



Fig. 24. Detail of shell layers in radial section of *Platydon cancellata*. H homogeneous, CL = crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar.

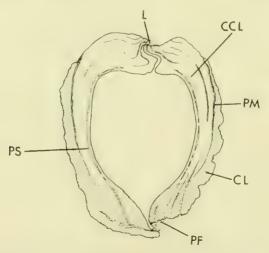


Fig. 25. Radial section of both valves of *Corbula gibba* showing the periostracal flaps (PF) and sheets (PS) incorporated into the shell a characteristic of this family. Other lettering; CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL - complex crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum, L = ligament.

structures we have recognized by appearing grey instead of brown in thin section. It is probable that the outer layer may have been derived by the degeneration of a phylogenetically earlier prismatic layer. The middle layer consists of very fine primary lamels, arranged concentrically. There is a thin, prismatic pallial myostracum in *Platydon cancellata* but only a sharp change in shell banding in *Mya arenaria*. Distinct sheets of myostracal prisms are often found in the inner layer.

GASTROCHAENACEA

Three species of this small superfamily of rock borers have been examined structurally and mineralogically. The shell is aragonitic.

The shell consists of two layers, an outer crossed-lamellar layer and an inner layer which may be complex crossed-lamellar or homogeneous. In all three species the outer layer has concentrically arranged lamels which pass transitionally inwards into homogeneous structure. The inner layer of *Gastrochaena gigantea* is complex crossed-lamellar but that of *G. ovata* and *G. truncata* is homogeneous, the former being distinctly lamellate. A thin prismatic pallial myostracum is present in all three species.

HIATELLACEA

(Plate 9, figs 1-4; Text-fig. 26)

This is a very small superfamily consisting of four extant genera, one of which *Panopea*, is divided into two subgenera *Panopea* and *Panomya*. Five species have been examined structurally and mineralogically, all are aragonitic.

In Panopea s.s. the shell consists of three layers, an outer simple prismatic layer which may be very thin, a middle homogeneous layer and an inner layer which may be homogeneous or complex crossed-lamellar. The simple prisms of the outer layer have rather irregular boundaries and orientations (Plate 9, fig. 1). They vary in width between 30–50 μ and are made up of smaller platy crystallites between 0.5–1.5 μ in width, which radiate from the central prism axis (Plate 9, fig. 3). The rate

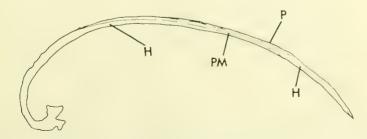


Fig. 26. Radial section of $Panopea\ zeylandica$. P= prisms, H= homogeneous, PM= pallial myostracum.

TABLE 16

MYACEA

Myostraca				Prismatic		Prismatic	Prismatic
Myc	Prismatic	Prismatic	Prismatic, thin	Prismatic	Prismatic	Prismatic	Prismatic
Inner layer	Finely complex crossed-lamellar with myostracal sheets	Finely complex crossed-lamellar with myostracal sheets	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal sheets	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal bands and pillars	Complex crossed- lamellar	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal sheets and pillars	Complex crossed- lamellar with myostracal sheets and pillars
Middle layer	Crossed-lamellar , fine	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	1	1	1	I
Mineralogy Outer layer	Grey, granular homogeneous	Grey, granular, homogeneous	Grey, granular, homogeneous	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar
Mineralogy	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite	Aragonite
Locality	Britain	Britain	California	Japan	Naples	Queensland	Ecuador
Species	Mya arenaria Linnaeus	Mya truncata Linnaeus	Platydon cancellata Conrad	Corbula crassa Hinds	Corbula gıbba (Olivi)	Corbula hydropica Iredale	Caryocorbula amethystina Ecuador Olsson

of divergence from the axis is high, so that the crystallites appear almost horizontal in relation to the axis (Plate 9, fig. 2). The middle homogeneous layer at high magnifications is seen to consist of short crystallites aligned in two directions (Plate 9, fig. 4) suggesting perhaps a transition to crossed-lamellar structure. The outer shell surface of *Panopea* is ornamented by granules arranged into rows radiating from the umbo.

In Hiatella, Cyrtodaria and Panomya there are only two layers. In all cases, the outer layer is homogeneous and excepting Panomya the inner layer is also homogeneous. In Panomya the inner layer may be homogeneous with thin prismatic sheets or it may consist of complex crossed-lamellar structure. In a specimen of Hiatella arctica from Spitzbergen the inner layer consisted almost entirely of myostracal prism sheets. Prismatic adductor myostraca were seen in Panomya norvegica and Hiatella arctica.

The presence of the outer simple prismatic layer in *Panopea* may be of considerable phylogenetic significance and this is discussed further in the conclusions.

PHOLADACEA

(Plate 10, figs 1-4; Plate 11, figs 1-3; Text-figs 27-29)

Two families constitute this superfamily the Pholadidae and the Teredinidae;

these are discussed separately.

Eleven species of Pholadidae have been examined structurally and mineralogically; all species examined consisted of aragonite. Two main types of shell structure were found in this family. In three species examined there was a three layered shell consisting of an outer simple prismatic layer, a middle crossed-lamellar layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar or homogeneous layer. The outer layer consists of prisms (Plate II, fig. 3) very similar to those found in *Panopea* (Hiatellacea p. 34);

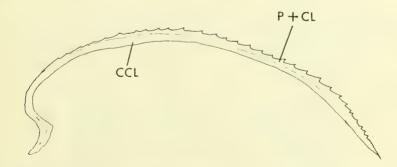


FIG. 27. Radial section of Barneacandida, as shown in Text-fig. 28 there is an interdigitation of the outer prismatic layer with the middle crossed-lamellar layer making differentiation at this magnification difficult. P = prisms, CL = crossed-lamellar, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar.

TABLE 17

GASTROCHAENACEA

Species	Locality	Locality Mineralogy Outer layer	Outer layer	Inner layer	Pallial myostracum
Gastrochaena gigantea Deshayes	India	Aragonite	Gastrochaena gigantea Deshayes India Aragonite Crossed-lamellar/homogeneous Complex crossed-lamellar Prismatic, thin	Complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic, thin
Gastrochaena ovata Sowerby	Panama	Aragonite	Gastrochaena ovata Sowerby Panama Aragonite Crossed-lamellar/homogeneous Complex crossed-lamellar Prismatic, thin	Complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic, thin
Gastrochaena truncata Sowerby	Mazatlan	Aragonite	Gastrochaeua truncata Sowerby Mazatlan Aragonite Crossed-lamellar/homogeneous Homogeneous	Homogeneous	Prismatic, thin

TABLE 18

HIATELLACEA

Species	Locality	Mineralogy Outer layer	Outer layer	Middle layer	Inner layer	Pallial myostracum
Panopea zeylandica (Quoy & Gaimard)	New Zealand Argonite	Argonite	Simple prisms Homogeneous	Homogeneous	Homogeneous or complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic
Panopea australis Sowerby	Australia	Argonite	Simple prisms Homogeneous	Homogeneous	Homogeneous or complex crossed lamellar	Prismatic
Panopea (Panomya) norwegica (Spengler)	North Sea	Aragonite	Aragonite Homogeneous		Complex crossed-lamellar or homogeneous with prism sheets	Prismatic
Cyrtodavia siliqua (Spengler)	British Columbia	.Aragonite	Homogeneous		Homogeneous	Prismatic
Hiatella arctica (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Homogeneous		Homogeneous	Prismatic

the prisms are irregular in size, length, and orientation in contrast to the more regular arrangement found, for example, in the Unionacea. The prismatic layer is not deposited continuously, for as seen in Text-fig. 28, the imbricating concentric ornament of this family is formed by a cyclical deposition and non-deposition of the prismatic structure (Plate II, figs I-2). A ventral 'shoot' of crossed-lamellar structure corresponds with each period of non-deposition of prisms. The crossed-lamellar layer is usually thin and the first order lamels short and coarse. The inner layer within the pallial line may be homogeneous or complex crossed-lamellar and is frequently lamellate and may contain sheets of myostracal prisms.

In Zirfaea crispata there is also a three layered shell but the outer layer consists of grey homogeneous structure. The individual crystallites (Plate 10, figs 1 & 2) are approximately 5–10 μ long and 2–4 μ wide with a slightly elongate shape. In this species the concentric ornament consists entirely of homogeneous structure. The structure resembles that of the Myidae and is conceivably derived from the simple prisms described above for other pholads.

In all other species of Pholadidae examined there is a two layered shell, with the outer ribbing and ornament being formed from crossed-lamellar structure. The

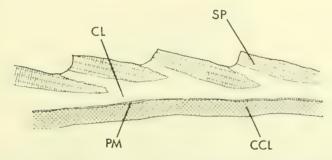


Fig. 28. Detail of radial section of *Barnea candida* showing the alternation of prismatic and crossed-lamellar structure in the outer layer. SP = simple aragonite prisms, CL = crossed-lamellar, PM = pallial myostracum, CCL = complex crossed-lamellar.

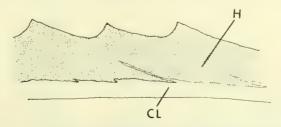


Fig. 29. Detail of a radial section of *Zirfaea crispata* showing outer homogeneous (H), and middle crossed-lamellar layer (CL).

strong umbonal reflections characteristic of the Pholadacea are formed from complex crossed-lamellar structure. Deposits of myostracal prisms occur beneath the adductor, pallial and other muscle attachment sites.

One species of Teredinae was examined structurally and mineralogically. The

shell and tube are both aragonite.

The shell is nearly hemispherical in shape and complicated as in the Pholadidae by apophyses, shelves and condyles associated with the wood-boring habit (Turner, 1966). The shell is basically two layered, with an outer crossed-lamellar (Plate 10, figs 3 & 4) and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer. The outermost part of the outer layer shows strongly reflected growth lines and the crossed-lamels are consequently radially aligned. In addition the lamels are very fine and present an almost homogeneous appearance. The complex crossed-lamellar layer is restricted to the umbonal ridge. Pads of myostracal prisms were seen beneath the large posterior adductor and beneath the anterior adductor which is situated on the umbonal reflection. The ventral condyle has homogeneous structure.

The calcareous tube which is secreted by the mantle surrounding the siphon tips

consists of layers of irregular granular crystals about 5-10 μ in diameter.

Sub-Class ANOMALODESMATA Order PHOLADOMYINA

PHOLADOMYACEA

(Plate 12, figs 1-4)

Because of lack of available material of this rare superfamily only a small fragment

of Pholadomya candida was studied. It is aragonitic.

The shell is basically three layered with an outer very thin simple prismatic layer a middle nacreous layer and within the pallial line an inner nacreous inner (Plate 12, fig. 1). The thin outer layer (Plate 12, fig. 1) also forms the surface granules arranged in radiating rows from the umbo. The middle nacreous layer appears to be 'Treppen' structure of Wise (1970) (Plate 12, fig. 4) and the inner nacre to be sheet nacre. The inner part of the inner layer consists of alternations of thin sheets of nacre with layers of myostracal prisms which form the dominant component (Plate 12, figs 2 & 3). Because of the very limited sampling it is not certain how typical the myostracal prism layers are of the whole shell.

PANDORACEA

(Plate 13, figs 1-4; Text-figs 30 & 31)

Sixteen species were examined structurally and mineralogically. The shell is

aragonitic throughout.

Representatives from all seven families recognized by Moore (1969) were examined and two distinct structural arrangements were found. One of these, with both layers consisting of homogeneous structure, is found in the Thracidae alone; all the

TABLE 19

PHOLADACEA

							Myostraca	
Species	Locality	Locality Mineralogy Outer layer	Outer layer	Middle layer	Inner layer		Pallial Addu	Adductor
Barnea candida (Linnaeus)	Britain	Aragonite	Prismatic	Crossed-lamella	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar	ed-lamellar	Prismatic	
Pholas chiloensis Molina	Ecuador	Aragonite	Prismatic	Crossed-lamellar	ır Complex crossed-lamellar	ed-lamellar	Prismatic	
Pholas dactylus Linnaeus	Britain	Aragonite	Prismatic	Crossed-lamellar	ar Complex crossed-lamellar	ed-lamellar	Prismatic	
Parapholas acuminata (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	lar —	Complex crossed-lamellar		Prismatic	
			POR	POROMYACEA	Commission and the	amaggad lamallar Drismatic	Prismatic	
Species	Loc	Locality	Mineralogy	Outer layer N	Middle layer	Inner layer	Pallial myostraca	traca
Euciroa eburnea (Wood-Mason & Alcock)	And	Andamans A	Aragonite	Simple prisms L	Lenticular nacre	Sheet naclre	Prismatic, thin	hin
Vevticordia deshayesiana (Fischer)	Atl	Atlantic A	Aragonite	Simple prisms L	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic	
Pecchiola argentea Savi & Meneghini	Italy		Aragonite	Simple prisms L	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic	
Poromya granulata (Nyst & Westendrop)	Britain		Aragonite]	Homogeneous N	Nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic	
Cuspidaria arctica (Sars)	Nor	Norway	Aragonite]	Homogeneous	1	Homogeneous	s Indistinct	
Cuspidaria chinensis (Griffith & Pidgeon)	Вогиео		Aragonite]	Homogeneous	1	Homogeneous	10	
Cuspidavia vostvata (Spengler)	Britain		Aragonite	Homogeneous	ı	Homogeneous	s Indistinct	

TABLE 19
PHOLADACEA

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	Locality	Locality Unersloav Outer laver	Outer laver	Middle layer	Toner layer	Myostraca	traca
sacade	Locainty	, minerancky	Carri rajus	To Care Care	mer tayer	Pallial	Adductor
Barnea candida (Linnaeus) Entain	Britain	Aragonite	Prismatic	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic	
Pholas chiloensis Molina	Ecuador	Aragonite	Prismatic	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic	
Pholas dactylus Linnaeus	Britain	Aragonite.	Prismatic	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed lamellar	Prismatic	
Parapholas acuminata (Sowerby)	Ecuador	Ecuador Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	1	Complex crossed-lamellar	Prismatic	
Mastessa striata (Linnaeus) Trinidad Aragonite	Trinidad	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar		Complex crossed-lamellar Prismatic	Prismatic	
Pholadidea loscombiana Turton	Britain	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar		Complex crossed lamellar Prismatic	Prismatic	
Zirfaca crispata (Linnicus) Britain	Britain	Aragonite	Grey, granular, homogeneous	Crossed-lamellar	Crossed-lamellar Complex crossed-lamellar Prismatia	Prismatic	Prismatic
Teredo navalis (Linnaeus) Britum	Britain	Aragonite	Crossed-lamellar	ı	Complex crossed-lamellar Prismatic Prismatic	Prismatic	Prismatic

TABLE 20 PANDORACEA

	1.	Managadas	Outton Lynne	Mukilo lawar	Inner laver	Myostraca	ca
	Locality	Mineralogy	Ameralogy Outer tayer	Middle layer	mist ia) ei	Pallial	Adductor
Pandora arcuata Sowerby	Ecuador	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Thin, prismatic	Prismatic
Pandora albida (Roding)	Naples	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre		
Pandora trilineala Say	Eastern USA.	Aragonite	Sumple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre		
Periploma inaequivalvis Schumacher	Jamaica	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Thin, prismatic	
fadesma angasi (Crosse & Fischer)	Australia	Aragomte	Simple prisms	Nacre	Sheet naure		
		Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre Sheet nacre	Sheet nacre		
Myadora brevis Sowerby		Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre and myostracal prisms	Prismatic	Prismatic
yadora striata (Quoy & Gaimard)	Auckland	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre and myostracal prisms	Prismatic	
Myadora tasmanıca Wood	Tasmana	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre and myostracal prisms	Prismatic	
Cleidothaerus albīda Lamarī k	N S Wales	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic	Prismatic
Myochama amomoides (Stutchbury)	Australia	Aragonite	Sumple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic	Prismatic
	California	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic	
Thracia contesa Wood	Britain	Aragonite	Homogeneous		Homogeneous	Trace	
Thracia phaseolina (Lamarck)	Britain	Aragonite	Homogeneous		Homogeneous	Trace	
Thracia villiosusulca (Macgillivray)	Bntaın	Aragonite	Homogeneous		Homogeneous		

TABLE 21
POROMYACEA

		Memorandorme	Outer lanur	Middle laver	Inner laver	Palhal myostraca
Species	Locanty	Millerandes	Outer tayer	and an organization		`
Suciroa churnea	Andamans	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nache	Prismatic, thin
(Wood-Mason & Alcock) Verticordia deshayesiana (Fischer)	Atlantic	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic
Perchiola argentea Savi & Meneghini	Italy	Aragonite	Simple prisms	Lenticular nacre	Sheet nacre	Prismatic
Poromya granulata (Nyst & Westendrop)	Britain	Aragonite	Homogeneous	Nacre	Sheet nacre	Prsmatro
Cuspilana arthea (Sars)	Norway	Aragonite	Homogeneous	1	Homogeneous	Indistinct
Cuspidana chinensis (Griffith & Pidgeon)	Вогиео	Aragonite	Homogeneous		Homogeneous	
Cuspidaria rostrata (Spengler)	Britain	Aragonite	Homogeneous	I	Homogeneous	Indistinct

other families have a three layered shell consisting of an outer simple prismatic layer a middle lenticular nacre layer and an inner sheet nacre layer. The outer simple prism layer is very thin and frequently worn off much of the shell. In most species examined a thin pallial myostracum separated the middle and inner nacreous layers. In *Myadora striata* most of the inner layer consists of myostracal prisms. Radial rows of granules are present on the outside of the shell in many species.

In the three species of *Thracia* examined, the two layered shell consists of homogeneous structure in both layers. Two species were examined at high magnifications and the inner surface of the shell appears granular with irregular crystals about 3 μ in diameter. In section these crystals are slightly flattened and have a slightly laminar arrangement. On the outside of the shell patterns of granules are seen (Tebble, 1966, fig. 103), when these are examined more closely they are seen to be isolated spherulitic structures (Plate 13, figs 1–4). These spherulites are made up of smaller crystallites (Plate 13, fig. 3) about 3 μ in length. The spherules form columnar growths intercalated with layers of periostracum (Plate 13, fig. 2). Eventually as growth proceeds these spherulites merge together and the crystal arrangement passes into a uniform homogeneous structure.

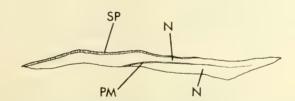


FIG. 30. Radial section of the flat right valve of $Pandora\ albida$. $SP = aragonite\ simple\ prisms$, N = nacre, $PM = pallial\ myostracum$.

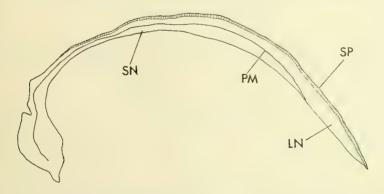


Fig. 31. Radial section of *Cleidothaerus albida*. SP = simple prisms, LN = lenticular nacre, PM = pallial myostracum, SN = sheet nacre.

Order POROMYOIDA

POROMYACEA

(Plate 13, figs 5; Plate 14, figs 1-5)

Seven species were examined structurally and mineralogically. The shell is

aragonitic.

This superfamily is represented by three families, the Poromyidae, the Cuspidaridae and the Verticordidae. The latter have a three layered shell consisting of an outer, simple prismatic layer, a lenticular nacre a middle layer and a sheet nacre inner layer. The middle and inner layers are separated by a thin sheet of pallial myostracal prisms. The shell structure is generally similar to that of most of the Pandoracea; in Euciroa the prisms are irregular (Plate 13, fig. 5) and resemble those of Panopea (Hiatellacea). In Poromya granulata there is a three layered shell as above but the outer layer consists of granular homogeneous structure probably phylogenetically derived from a structural breakdown of simple prismatic structure (Plate 14, figs 2 & 4).

The Cuspidaridae and some Poromyidae both have a two layered shell with homogeneous structure in both layers. The granules of the homogeneous layers are about 2 μ in size (Plate 14, fig. 5) and generally similar in appearance to those of the Thracidae. The pallial myostracum was indistinct in the species examined and shows a discontinuity rather than a distinct structure.

CLAVAGELLACEA

(Plate 15, figs 1-5; Text-fig. 32)

This is a small highly aberrant superfamily which consists of three extant genera Clavagella, Humphreysia and Penicillus which show a progressive fusion of the true shell with the calcareous tube. The valves are however free when young. Three species were examined structurally and mineralogically; the shell and tube are both aragonite.

In Clavagella aperta the valves are fairly large and only one is fused with the siphonal tube. The valves consist of a thin simple prismatic outer layer with a sheet nacre inner layer. Thin sheets of myostracal prisms are secreted beneath the muscle

attachment scars.

Valves of a juvenile *Humphreysia strangei* were examined, these had a simple prismatic outer layer and inner sheet nacre layers (s). The outside of the valves is

finely pustulate.

In *Penicillus* s.s. the true shell is seen as two valves occupying a saddle shaped area incorporated into the side of the tube (Text-fig. 32). The tube is extended posteriorly as a hollow cylinder and anteriorly as a perforated disc (the watering pot). The true valves are covered by a thin periostracum which is inserted from the outside of the shell to line the inside of the tube at the edge of the saddle shaped area. The valves consist of two layers, an outer extremely thin simple prismatic layer with an

	Р оцатер	
	Знеет и ч ске	×
67	LENTICULAR NACRE	×
LE 22	COMPOSITE PRISMS	×
TABLE	CALCITE SIMPLE PRISMS	
	ARAGONITE SIMPLE PRISMS	

MINERALOGY

SUPERFAMILY

Nuculacea Nuculanacea

LUBULES

MYYOSTRACAL PILLARS

COMPLEX CROSSED-LAMELLAR

Номосеиеоиз

CROSSED-LAMELLAR

	SHEET WACRE TUBULES CROSSED-LAMELLAR HOMOGENEOUS MYOGTRACAL PILLARS TUBULES	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		××× · · × × · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		*** ***	 **** **** ****	 .x
E 22	COMPOSITE PRISMS LENTICULAR MACRE	× ·			**	× · · · · · · · · · × · · · · ×		××
TABLE	ARACOUITE SIMPLE PRISMS CALCITE SIMPLE PRISMS		. ×		 **		 à ·××	
	MINERALOGY	ΑA	Ą	C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	44	*************	4444	44
	SUPERFAMILY	Nuculacea Nuculanacea	Solemyacea	Arcacea Limopsacea Nytlacea Phunecea Pertinacea Arominacea Arominacea Limecea Ostreacea	Unionacea Trigonacea	Lucinacea Chamacea Chamacea Chamacea Chamacea Chamydoconchacea Cyamiacea Carditacea Tridecnacea Mactracea Mactracea Polinacea Tellinacea Polinacea Tellinacea Articacea Grainacea Combandiacea Articacea Gorbiculacea Corbiculacea	Myacea Gastrochaenacea Hiatellacea Pholadacea	Pholadomyacea Pandoracea

inner sheet nacreous layer about 500 μ thick (Plate 15, figs 1 & 2). The outer shell surface is ornamented with small granules radiating from the umbo (Plate 15, fig. 5). The outer more irregular part of the saddle shaped area consists of homogeneous structure and is lain down on the inside of the nacreous layer. On the inner surface of the homogeneous layer, is the attachment of the pallial muscles which secrete beneath them, myostracal prisms forming a conspicuous 'W' shaped scar. The tube and pot form the most conspicuous part of the animal. Optically the shell structure of these features appears homogeneous with conspicuous lamellate banding. Electronmicroscopy shows that both the tube and pot are made up of platy crystals 0.5-2 μ in diameter, 0.3-0.5 μ in width irregular in outline but aligned with the long axis parallel with the outside of the tube. (Plate 15, figs 2 & 4).

The mode of secretion of the pot and tube pose problems; both of these two structures lie external to the periostracum which is not in intimate contact with the tube but encases the long siphons (Purchon, 1956). On many specimens growth increments can be seen at the posterior end of the tube and this must be formed by

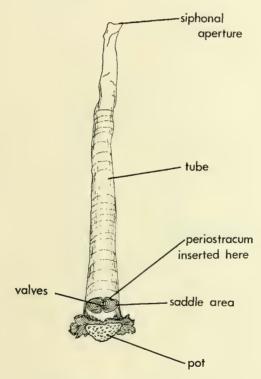


Fig. 32. Sketch showing the main features of the shell of Penicillus sp.

mantle at the tips of the siphons. However it is difficult to see how the pot could be formed as a continuous growth process without repeated resorbtion. It is possible that the tube and pot are secreted only when the animal is near fully grown. The common occurrence of sand, pebbles, shells and other debris incorporated into the pot and tube, together with the general lack of growth lines, is slight evidence in favour of a rapid secretion process. The posterior end of the tube, grows subsequently by the addition of material by the tips of the siphons; in this case we see clear growth increments and no debris incorporated into the shell. However, until more is known about the biology of *Penicillus*, we have no real evidence to support either alternative explanation of shell secretion.

CONCLUSIONS

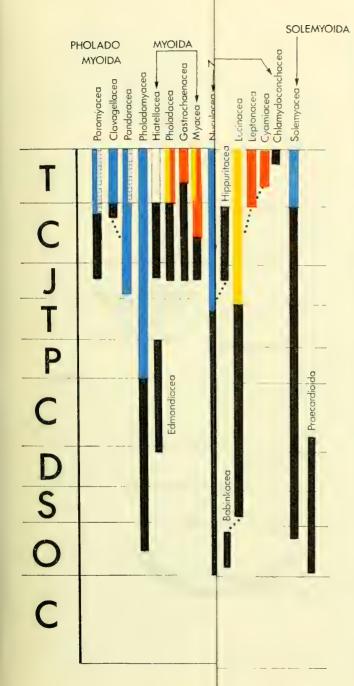
It has become increasingly clear that the Bivalvia cannot be classified on single character systems (Cox, 1960; Newell, 1965) and that a total organism study involving shell characters, comparative anatomy, geological history and more recently biochemical characters must be employed or attempted (Ghiselin *et al*, 1967). Shell microstructure and mineralogy can therefore be only contributory evidence towards establishing the relationships of the bivalves and must be used in conjunction with other characters. However, our shell structure studies have established twelve characters which can be used as an aid to classification; in some cases these characters can be crucial evidence (Kennedy, Morris & Taylor, 1970).

The classifications of Newell (1956, 1969) and Cox (1960) are essentially similar and are compilations of existing knowledge from the single and multiorgan systems of previous neontologists, geological history and the relationships of fossil forms established on shell characters alone. This is in contrast to the single organ classifications of for example Purchon (1959), Atkins (1938). If the shell structure combinations we have recognized are superimposed upon these compilations of previous knowledge, it is possible to see where these characters support or are in apparent disagreement with the established classification. A summary of shell characters arranged in the classificatory order of Newell (1969, Treatise of Invertebrate Palaeontology) is shown in Table 22. There is a striking general agreement of shell structure characters with classification.

The relationship of the bivalve superfamilies and their shell structures is best seen in the form of a phylogenetic tree¹, showing the geological history possible ancestry and known shell structure combinations (Text-fig. 33).

It is apparent that many bivalve superfamilies or lineages have long and continuous records extending far back into the Palaeozoic and in many cases have been extremely conservative. Major evolutionary radiations are seen in the early Ordovician, Permo-Trias and of the heterodonts in the Mesozoic; the latter is discussed by Stanley (1967). Shell structure information at critical points of radiation in the Palaeozoic is almost non-existent. This information would be extremely

¹ The construction of this tree has been carried out in close collaboration with Dr. N. J. Morris and draws heavily upon his wide knowledge of Palaeozoic and Mesozoic bivalves.



The main shell structure groupings (colours) have been super-Fig. 33. Geological history and possible phylogeny of the Bivalvia. imposed on the superfamily lineages.

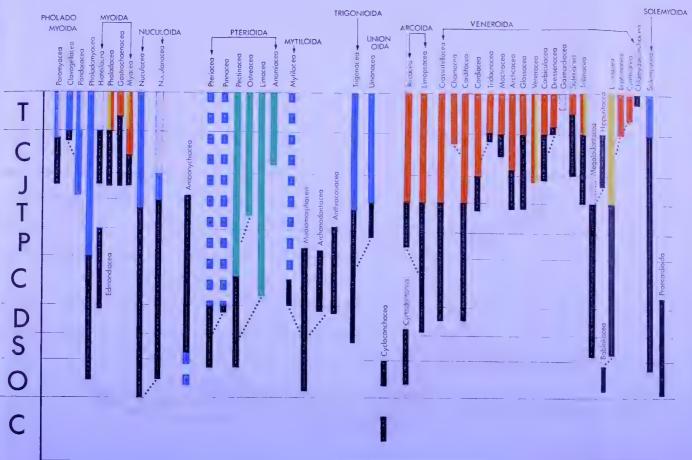
= Composite prisms/crossed-lamellar, complex crossed-lamellar. Calcite prisms/nacre. Blue (broken) Yellow Crossed-lamellar/complex crossed-lamellar Blue (continuous) - Aragonite simple prisms/nacre. Orange

Biue (continuous) = Aragonite simple prisms/nac Green = Foliated structure. Black = Unknown.

The Hiatellacea are mainly homogeneous but Panopea has an outer simple aragonite prismatic layer. This layer is also present in Calcite prism outer layers are found in = Areas of uncertain relationships, some Pholadacea which have middle crossed-lamellar and inner complex crossed-lamellar layers. Stippled the Ostreacea and some Pectinacea.

= Homogeneous.

Brick pattern



Paris I	Orange Crossed lamellar complex crossedel mellar	Yellow	Composite presins crossed land
Blue (continuous) =	Blue (continuous) == Aragonite simple prisms/na 10	Blue br ken	California north complete complete prisms north
Green	I ohnted structure	Brok pattern	Homogeneous
Black =	= Unknown	Stippled	Vieas of uncertain relationships
The Hiatellacea are mai	The Hiatellacea are mainly homogeneous but Plan feet has an enter simple stageoute presental layer. This layer is also present	the tradenate prismate	layer. This layer is also present
some Pholadacea which have	some Pholadacea which have middle crossed-lamellar and inner complex crossed-lamelare layers — Calatte prism outer layers are found	ssed-lamel, or layers (alerte presm outer layers are found

important in the Ordovician where most of the radiation of the major lineages and shell structure combinations probably took place. However because of dissolution, recrystallisation and replacement the original shell fabrics have disappeared or have been altered out of recognition.

The relationships of the various bivalve superfamilies are discussed in terms of shell structure variations below.

Subclass PALAEOTAXODONTA

Two superfamilies belong in this group; the Nuculacea are generally regarded as the most primitive living bivalves (Yonge, 1959) but the other superfamily the Nuculanacea are considered to be as highly specialized as any similar group throughout the bivalves (Yonge, 1959). The origin of the Nuculacea can be traced back to the Upper Cambrian Ctenodonta (Cox, 1959) and the group appears to have remained relatively unchanged morphologically throughout their subsequent history. The nacreous and composite prismatic shell is different from that of any other family. However, we consider that the difference between simple aragonite prisms (possibly the ancestral condition) such as found in the Unionacea and Pholadomyacea and the composite prisms of the Nuculacea is slight and arises from differences in the degree of mantle reflection at the shell margin. The extant Nuculanacea have a homogeneous shell but as shown by Cox (1959) and Taylor, Kennedy & Hall (1969) this has not always been the case.

Subclass CRYPTODONTA

Solemya has been considered to be a protobranch (Palaeotaxodonta) by Yonge (1939, 1959) but as Newell (1965) has pointed out, it is becoming increasingly apparent that the Solemyacea have been separated from the rest of the protobranchs from at least the Devonian and are not obviously related to the Nuculacea. The shell structure and in particular the character of the outer prismatic layer, is distinctive, but nevertheless can be readily derived from simple aragonite prisms. Our observations tend to support Newell's opinion that the Solemyacea belong to a separate subclass the Cryptodonta.

The extinct Palaeozoic order Praecardioida is placed in the Cryptodonta, but there is very little evidence of any relationship to the Solemyacea. We have no shell structure information on this group.

Allen & Sanders (1969) have recently described the anatomy and discussed the affinities of the Recent genus (Nucinella classified in the Limopsacea, in the Treatise) which they consider to be a monomyarian 'solemyid' and possibly related to the extinct actinodont group (i.e. Cycloconchacea). Although there are several anatomical resemblances of Nucinella to Solemya other characters resemble those of the Nuculacea. Our observations of the shell structure show that it is homogeneous structure similar to that of Nuculana but unlike Solemya or the Nuculacea. But if Nucinella is either a nuculacean or a solemyacean then reference to Text-fig. 33 will show that both these groups were probably derived from a cycloconchacean ancestor.

Subclass PTERIOMORPHIA

The Arcacea are generally thought to be derived from the Cyrtodontacea of the lower Ordovician (Cox, 1959, 1960) but as pointed out by Morris (1967) the connection is not firmly established. Newell (1954) has considered that the 'cyrtodontids' are also the ancestors of the Pteriacea, Pectinacea and also possibly the Mytilacea. These latter groups probably became separate from the "cyrtodontid stock" rather earlier (Text-fig. 33). The Arcacea have a crossed-lamellar and complex crossed-lamellar shell structure with tubules and myostracal pillars. This structure is very different from that of the rest of the Pteriomorphia, but similar to that of some heterodonts such as the Carditacea. The only character which is common between the Arcacea and the rest of the Pteriomorphia is the filibranch gill and it seems to us that there is no close relationship between the groups and the Arcoida (Arcacea & Limopsacea) should possibly be considered as a separate subclass related to the Heterodonta. This does not of course deny a once common ancestry.

The Mytilacea have a very distinctive prismatic, calcitic, outer shell layer, sometimes called 'fibrillar' (Oberling, 1964). This particular structure is found in no other bivalve group. The work of Osborn (1970) on mammalian teeth has shown that all the different prism-like structures may not be very different from each other. The Mytilacea may have arisen directly from the lower Ordovician-Permian family the Modiomorphidae and have no apparent derivatives. Newell (1965) placed the Pinnacea in the order Mytiloida (implying relationship) but the simple calcite prisms, general shell form and anatomy suggest derivation from the Pteriacea.

As mentioned above the Pteriacea and the Pectinacea are both considered to have been derived from a cyrtodontid ancestor (Cox, 1960; Newell, 1938). Although they have different shell structures this does not rule out a common ancestor. The occurrence of an outer prismatic layer in oysters, the early post larval stages of some pectens (Jackson, 1890) and in some species of *Propeamussium* suggests that the foliated layer in these forms may have originally been derived from aragonite nacreous structure by a change in the calcium carbonate polymorph. The superfamily Ambonychiiacea which ranges from middle Ordovician to upper Devonian has been extensively discussed by Pojeta (1966); it includes many 'Pteria'-like forms. Recently we have examined an Ambonychia from the upper Ordovician (Ashgill) from near Girvan, Scotland which has some shell structure preserved. As might be expected it showed nacreous inner layers, but unfortunately the outer layer was recrystallised, but was probably calcite prisms.

Newell & Boyd (1970) have recently described the earliest known members of the Anomiacea, from the Permian. This superfamily is probably derived from the Pectinacea. The same is probably true of the Limacea. The Ostreacea first appeared in the Permian and were probably derived from a Pectinacean ancestor the Pseudomonotidae (Newell, 1961; Newell & Boyd, 1970). The shell structure characters support this suggestion.

Subclass PALAEOHETERODONTA

The Unionacea and Trigonacea have a very similar shell structure of aragonite simple prisms and lenticular and sheet nacreous layers. There has long been debate as to the possible relationship of these two families (Cox, 1960). The anatomical evidence suggests that they may be distinct groups, whereas the palaeontological evidence is ambiguous and unsatisfactory. As well as the morphological and shell structure similarities, they have a character in common which is usually overlooked; this is the possession of calcareous gill spicules recorded for the Unionacea by Ridewood (1904) and for the Unionacea and Trigonacea (Atkins, 1938). They are the only bivalve superfamilies to possess these spicules.

Subclass HETERODONTA

The Lucinacea are known from the Silurian to Recent and can be traced through the Babinkacea back to the middle Ordovician (McAlester, 1965, 1966). McAlester has argued that the Lucinacea are a distinct bivalve group and should be considered as a separate subclass. Certainly the Lucinacea have been distinct for a long period of time and only the Leptonacea and Cyamiacea can be related to them. However Boss (1969) considers from anatomical and shell morphological evidence that the Lucinacea are closely connected to other bivalves of the heterodont subclass. The Lucinacea have a three layered shell of an outer composite prismatic layer, a middle crossed-lamellar layer and an inner complex crossed-lamellar layer. This combination is also found in the Tellinacea and some Veneracea. The shell structure evidence thus supports the opinion of Boss (1969) that the Lucinacea belong to the Heterodonta, but reference to Text-figure 33 will show that they have been distinct from the rest of the heterodont stock for a long time.

The Tellinacea are known from the Upper Triassic to Recent but their phylogenetic relationships are obscure. As noted above the three layered shell structure is found in the Lucinacea and Veneracea. The Solenacea may have arisen from the Tellinacea in the late Cretaceous or early Cainozoic (Davies, 1935; Morris, 1967). In the process they must have lost the outer composite prismatic layer, as indeed have some of the

Tellinacea.

The Astartacea, Carditacea, Chamacea, Cardiacea, Tridacnacea, Mactracea, Arcticacea, Veneracea, Corbiculacea, Dreissenacea and the Glossacea all appear to be generally related (Text-fig. 33). The shell structure is generally similar in all these groups with only relatively small variations (Table 22). The most important variation is the three layered shell in some Veneracea. Most of these families arose in the Mesozoic and Cainozoic, and Stanley (1968) has discussed this spectacular radiation. The most striking trend is the appearance and extensive radiation of the infaunal siphonate feeders, which Stanley relates to the development of siphons and the closure of the mantle cavity by mantle fusion. Most of the families involved in this radiation have a two layered shell of crossed-lamellar structure and complex crossed-lamellar structures. In some families one or both layers may consist of homogeneous structure, but in these cases it is obviously derived from the structures mentioned.

The Mesozoic Veneroida were probably derived from either the Crassatellacea (Stanley, 1968), which first appeared in the Devonian, or from the Carditacea which also appeared in the Devonian (Morris, 1967). These two families probably have a common origin in the lower Palaeozoic from a cyrtodontacean stock (Text-fig. 33). Yonge, (1969) has recently stressed the similarities between the Crassatellacea and the Carditacea.

The Chamacea which first appeared in the upper Cretaceous are thought on the basis of shell structure and anatomical characters to have been derived from the

Carditacea (Kennedy, Morris & Taylor, 1970).

The Cardiacea first appeared in the Trias, but no obvious ancestor can be cited from older rocks. The Tridacnacea can be readily derived from the Cardiacea in the Eocene or late Cretaceous (Stasek, 1962). The Mactracea appear similar to the Cardiacea in shell structure details but there is no real evidence of any relationship.

The Arcticacea, Veneracea and Corbiculacea may have been derived from the Jurassic forms *Pseudotrapezium* and *Pronella* (Casey, 1952; Morris, 1967). The Arcticacea and the Veneracea are probably very closely related. Although *Arctica* shows a homogeneous shell structure traces of crossed-lamellar structure may sometimes be seen. Other members of the Arcticacea show crossed-lamellar and complex crossed-lamellar structure. The Veneracea show two distinct types of shell structure; this may be a result of the loss of the outer composite layer in some forms

or a polyphyletic origin for the Veneracea.

The Dreissenacea are a group of fresh water byssate anisomyarian bivalves which appeared in the Cainozoic. Because of their mytilid-like shell, their relations have remained obscure, but it has been realized for some time that they are unrelated to the Mytilacea (Yonge & Campbell, 1968). The shell structure shows great similarity in micro-details to that of the Corbiculacea and it is reasonable to suppose that the Dreissenacea arose from the fresh and brackish water Corbiculacea. Morton (1970) has made a study of the morphological changes seen in fossil forms, demonstrating a progression from the Corbiculacea to the Dreissenacea. However, the idea of some relationship to the Mytilacea has not entirely disappeared (Purchon & Brown, 1969).

Subclasses MYOIDA and PHOLADOMYOIDA

The Myoida and Pholadomyoida although classified in separate subclasses show obvious similarities and we consider that all the superfamilies in these subclasses can be derived from a "pholadomyacean" stock which has been in existence since the middle Ordovician. Other workers however, consider the resemblances to be the result of morphological convergence (Runnegar, 1966, 1967).

Pholadomya s.s. has a shell structure of simple aragonite prisms and middle and inner nacreous layers. Panopea of the Hiatellacea (Myoida) is anatomically and morphologically very similar to Pholadomya (even including surface granules) but has an outer prismatic layer, a middle homogeneous and an inner complex crossed-lamellar later. Other members of the Hiatellacea have shells consisting of homogeneous structure alone. It seems very probable that the Hiatellacea have been

derived from the "pholadomyoid" stock. Some Pholadacea have a shell structure of simple prisms, crossed-lamellar and complex crossed-lamellar layers. The structure of the outer layer closely resembles that of Panopea. It seems that the Pholadacea may have arisen from the Pholadomyacea in the early Jurassic; the genera Myopholas and Giradotia would seem to be transitional forms (Morris, unpub.).

The Myacea consist of two families, the Myidae (Palaeocene-Recent) and the Corbulidae (L. Jurassic-Recent). It does not seem very likely on anatomical and shell morphological grounds that the Corbulidae gave rise to the Myidae. This is supported by the fact that the Corbulidae have a two layered and the Myidae a three layered shell. The origin of the Corbulidae might perhaps be found in the Permian pholadomyoid forms such as *Pyramus* amd *Megadesmus* (see figures in Runnegar, 1967). The Myidae would seem to have been independently derived from the "pholadomyoid" stock at a much later date.

Most Pandoracea have a shell structure of simple prisms and two nacreous layers, this and anatomical characters suggest a derivation from the Pholadomyacea in the Trias or lower Jurassic. The Thracidae (family of Pandoracea) have today a largely homogeneous shell, the outermost part of which retains a vestige of prismatic structure. However in the Cretaceous the Thracidae had a prismato-nacreous shell and apart from shell structure there is little to differentiate the Thracidae, from other Pandoracean families such as the Laternulidae.

The origins of the Poromyacea are obscure but certainly the Cuspidariidae can be traced back to the Trias (Cox, 1960; Morris, 1967) and have probably arisen from the Edmondiacean genus Solenomorpha. The Edmondiacea appear to be a heterogeneous Palaeozoic group closely related to the Pholadomyacea. Some of the Poromyacea have a prismato-nacreous shell and others are entirely homogeneous. Although the superfamily has a septibranch gill there are many anatomical resemblances to the Pandoracea.

The Clavagellacea are a highly aberrant group but anatomical characters, the nacreo-prismatic shell and the surface granules suggest a close affinity with the Pandoracea.

Evidence from the Monoplacophora (Erben, et al, 1968), Archaeogastropoda (Wise, 1970; Wise & Hay, 1968), Nautilus (Grégoire, 1962) and some of the oldest bivalve lineages strongly suggests that the "primitive" shell structure of the bivalves is a simple aragonite prism outer layer and middle and inner nacreous layers. Subsequent evolutionary radiation of the shell structures has been a result of the increased exploitation of different habitats and different modes of life. Taylor & Layman (1972) have stressed the functional significance of bivalve shell structures and present evidence correlating structure with mode of life. However we need much more information on the course of evolutionary change in shell structures and it is probable that in time sufficient well preserved Palaeozoic material will be discovered in order to document these changes.

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All figures on this plate are acetate peels

Fig. 1. Radial section of the outer composite prismatic layer of **Codakia tigerina** showing the fine needle-like crystallites aligned normal to the growth increments. \times 160

 $F_{1G.~2.}$ Radial section of *Lucina fijiensis* showing complex crossed-lamellar inner layer (bottom) with step-like blocks of pallial myostracum (upper). $\times 160$

Fig. 3. Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of *Astarte sulcata* showing very fine first order lamels and growth increments. ×160

FIG. 4. Radial section of the outer layer of Astarte sulcata illustrating the change in orientation of the first order lamellae inwards from the outside of the shell (upper).

Fig. 5. Radial section of the inner complex crossed-lamellar layer of *Lucina fijiensis*. ×100.

FIG. 6. Radial section of *Crassatella decipiens* showing the outer crossed-lamellar layer (top), the pallial myostracum and the inner layer which begins as complex crossed-lamellar but grades into homogeneous structure. ×160.

Fig. 7. Radial section of the inner layer of Astarte incrassata showing both the myo-

stracal prisms and homogeneous structures. × 160.

Fig. 8. Oblique section through the inner layer of *Astarte incrassata* in the umbonal area showing the individual myostracal prisms surrounded by homogeneous structure.

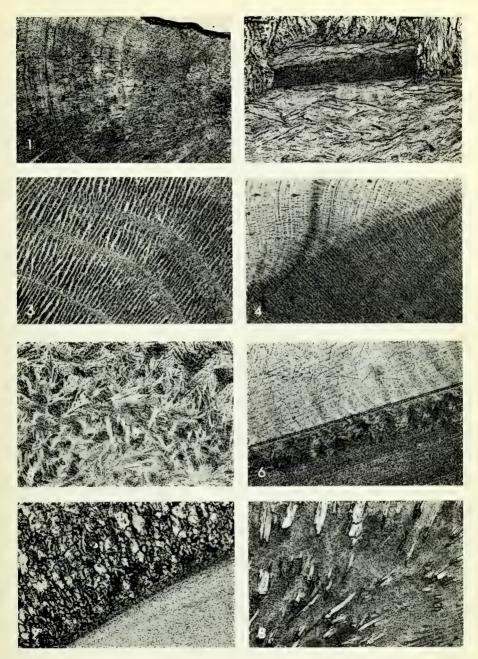


Fig. 1 Crassatella radiata, radial section showing myostracal pillars in the inner complex crossed lamellar layer—These terminate at the inner shell surface to produce boss-like structures as in fig. 2. Acetate peel, ×160.

Fig. 2. Surface of the inner layer of *Astarte borealis* showing the high density of myostracal bosses, separated by homogeneous structure. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×50.

Fig. 3. Similar area to Fig. 2 but higher magnification. ×280.

Fig. 4—Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of *Cardita sowerbyi* showing how the primary lamels are arranged radially in the outer part of the shell (top) and become aligned concentrically inwards. Acetate peel, ×160.

Fig. 5 Radial section of *Cardita marmorea* showing the myostracal pillars cutting both the outer crossed-lamellar layer (bottom) and the inner complex crossed-lamellar layer.

Acetate peel, ×160.

Fig. 6. Radial section of the inner complex crossed-lamellar layer of *Cardita sowerbyi*. Note the sheets of myostracal prisms and the continuity of the major structures through them. Acetate peel, \times 160.

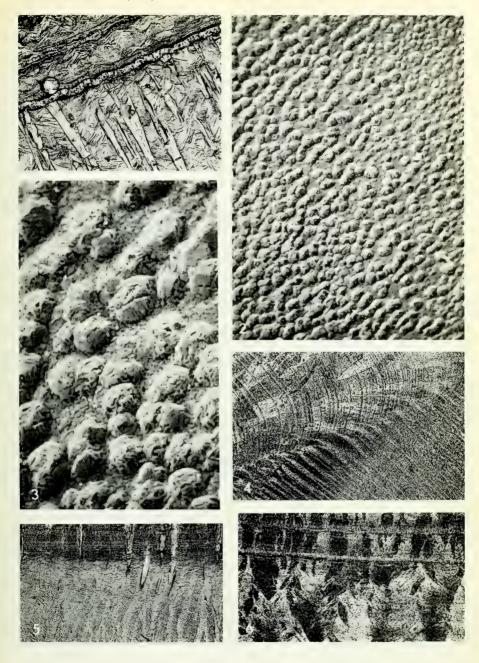


Fig. 1. Radial section of *Trachycardium consors* in the hinge showing the crossed-lamellar layer with two orientations of first order lamels (top and bottom) separated by a thin myostracum (probably pedal). Acetate peel, ×160.

Fig. 2. Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of *Acanthocardia echinata* showing the very fine, first order lamels intersected by prominent growth banding. Acetate

peel, ×160

Fig. 3 Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of Laevicardium alternatum. Acetate peel, $\times 160$.

Fig. 4. Inner complex crossed-lamellar layer of *Cerastoderma edule*; radial section. Acetate peel, ×160.

Fig. 5 Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of *Hippopus hippopus* showing the change in orientation of first order lamels associated with strong ribbing. Acetate peel, ×40.

Fig. 6. Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of *Tridacna squamosa* showing several first order lamels with constituent lath-like, second order lamels inclined in opposing

directions in adjacent first order lamels. Acetate peel, ×160.

Figs 7 & 8. Radial sections of *Hippopus hippopus*, inner layer. Fig. 7 is a scanning electron-micrograph (+1,200) of the structure which in the optical micrograph (Fig. 8, +160) appears homogeneous and banded. The banding consists of sheets of aragonite needles arranged with their long axes normal to the plane of the sheet.

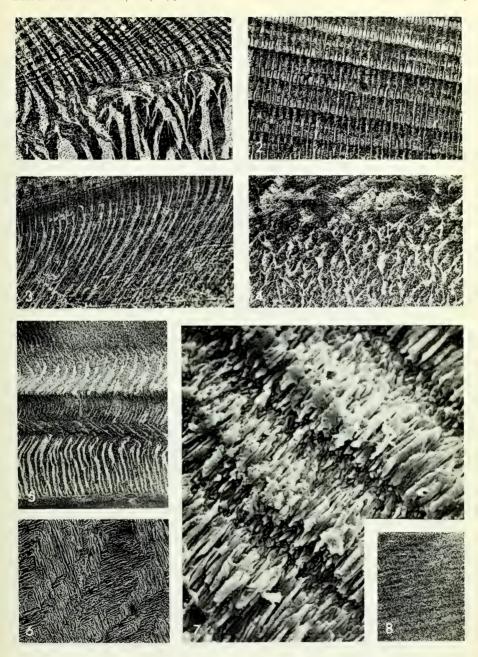


Fig. 1—Radial section of *Mactronella exoleta* showing boundary between outer crossed-lamellar and inner complex crossed-lamellar layers. Acetate peel, ×40.

Fig. 2. Outer crossed-lamellar layer of Mactra producta showing the very thin lamels

characteristic of this family. Acetate peel, ×80.

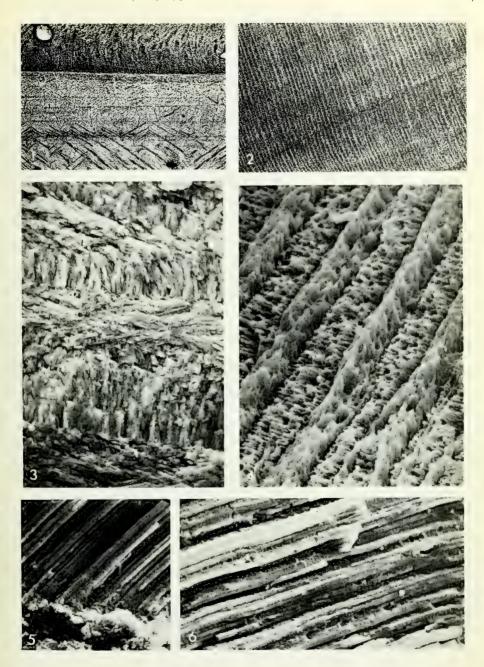
Fig. 3. Radial section of the inner layer of **Ensis siliqua** showing how this layer is built up of sheets of prisms, alternating with sheets of complex crossed-lamellar structure—Scanning electron-micrograph ×2,000.

Fig. 4. Polished, etched, radial section of the middle crossed-lamellar layer of Hecuba

scortum. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×2,000.

Fig. 5. Radial section of the junction between the outer composite prismatic and the middle crossed-lamellar layers of **Donax faba**. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×1,600.

Fig. 6. Radial section of the composite prismatic layer of **Donax faba** showing the long, lath-shaped units of this structure as found in this family. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×2.000.



- Fig. 1. Polished, etched, section of the inner prismatic layer (myostracal prisms) of **Semele tortuosa**. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×600.
- Fig. 2. As Fig. 1; showing middle crossed-lamellar layer and the inner prismatic layer separated by a thin sheet of myostracal prisms of the pallial myostracum. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×2,000.
- Fig. 3. Radial section of the middle crossed-lamellar layer of **Solenotellina radiata** showing very narrow first order lamels. Acetate peel, ×80.
- Fig. 4 Radial section of **Semele tortuosa** with outer composite prismatic layer (top right), middle crossed-lamellar layer and an inner layer composed of myostracal prisms. Acetate peel, ×40.
 - Fig. 5. Complex crossed-lamellar inner layer of Asaphis deflorata. Acetate peel, ×40.
- Fig. 6. Radial section of inner complex crossed-lamellar layer of **Solenotellina radiata**, Acetate peel, ×80.
- Fig. 7 Radial section of the inner homogeneous layer of *Tellina radiata* showing lamellate character produced by organic sheets. Acetate peel, ×8o.

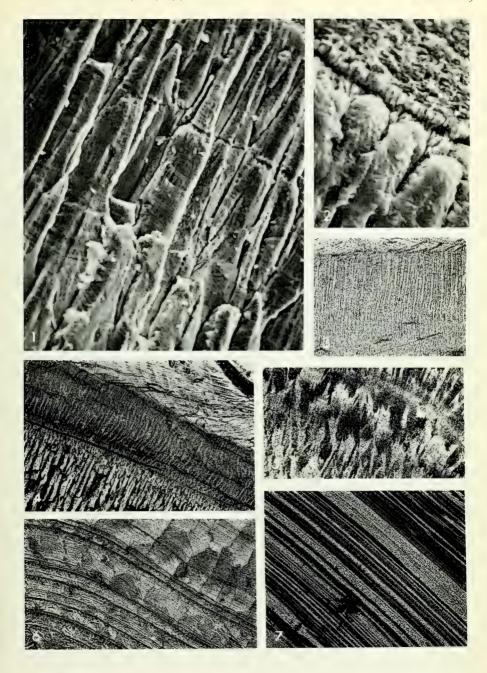


Fig. 1. Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of *Glossus humanus*; pallial myostracum at bottom left. Acetate peel, ×80.

Fig. 2—Radial section of the inner complex crossed-lamellar of *Polymesoda anomalata*.

Acetate peel, ×80.

Fig. 3 Polished and etched radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of **Dreissena** polymorpha showing five adjacent lamellae. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×2,400.

Fig. 4. Radial section (polished and etched) of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of

Sphaerium lacustris. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×2,400.

Fig. 5 Inner surface of the inner homogeneous layer of *Gaimardia trapezia* showing a general alignment of granules towards the shell margin (top right). Scanning electron-micrograph, $\times 3,000$.

Fig. 6. Fractured section of the inner homogeneous layer of *Gaimardia trapezia*. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×800.

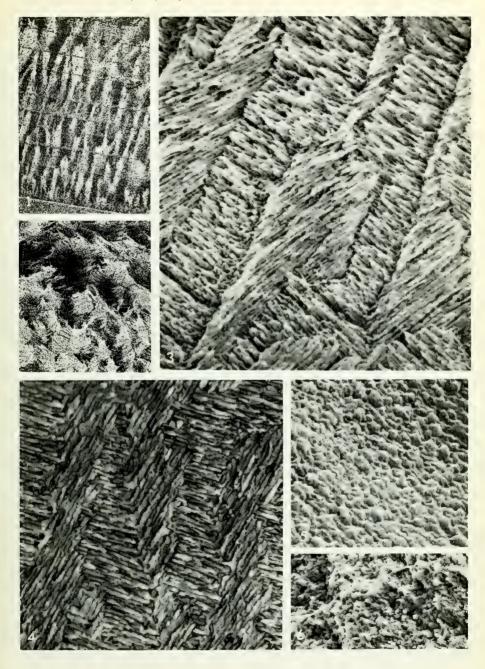


Fig. 1 Radial section of *Venus striatula* showing the outer composite prismatic layer (top left) and the middle crossed-lamellar layer which grades into homogeneous structure inwards (bottom right). Acetate peel, $\times 80$.

Fig. 2 Radial section of *Venus striatula* showing the outer composite prismatic layer (top)

and the middle homogeneous layer. Acetate peel, ×80.

Fig. 3. Concentric, polished, etched, section through the outer composite prismatic layer of **Mercenaria mercenaria** showing the large prism units made up of small crystallites—Scanning electron micrograph, ×2,400.

Fig. 4. Radial section (polished, etched) of the outer composite prismatic layer of *Tivela hians* showing first order units made up of smaller crystallites in a feathery arrangement.

Scanning electron micrograph, ×1,400.

Fig. 5. As Fig. 4, showing the contact between the outer composite prismatic and the middle homogeneous layers. Scanning electron micrograph, $\times 3,000$.

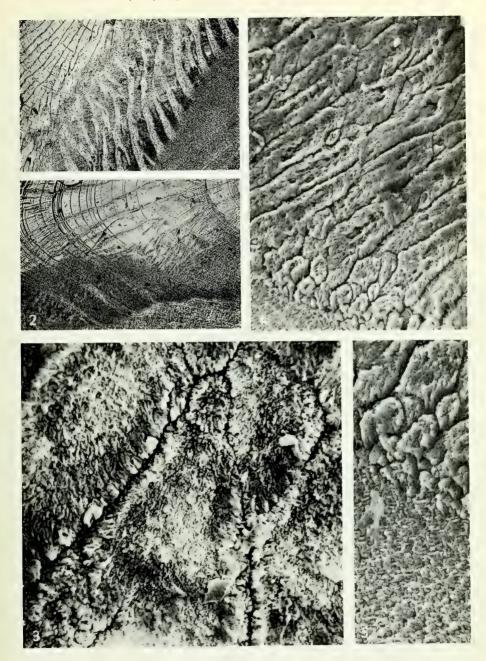


Fig. 1. Polished, etched, radial section of the crossed-lamellar middle layer of *Mercenaria mercenaria* showing the needle-like third order lamellae aligned in opposing directions in adjacent first order lamellae. Scanning electron-micrograph, ×2,400.

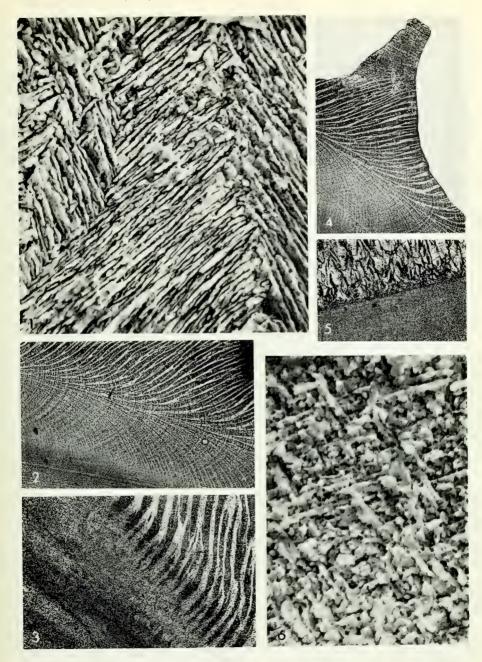
F₁₆₋₂ Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of **Hysteroconcha dione** showing the crossed lamellar structure radiating from a central axis which is aligned parallel to the outer shell surface. Note the strongly reflected growth lines. Acetate peel, ×80.

Fig. 3 Radial section of Gafrarium pectinatam showing the transitional nature of the

crossed-lamellar/homogeneous boundaries in the outer shell layer. Acetate peel, ×80.

Fig. 4 Radial section of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of *Hysteroconcha dione* showing the arrangement of lamellae in a spine. Acetate peel, ×80.

Fig. 5. Polished, etched section of the middle 'homogeneous' layer of **Mercenaria mercenaria** showing the orientated nature of the crystallites. Scanning electron micrograph, × 3,200.



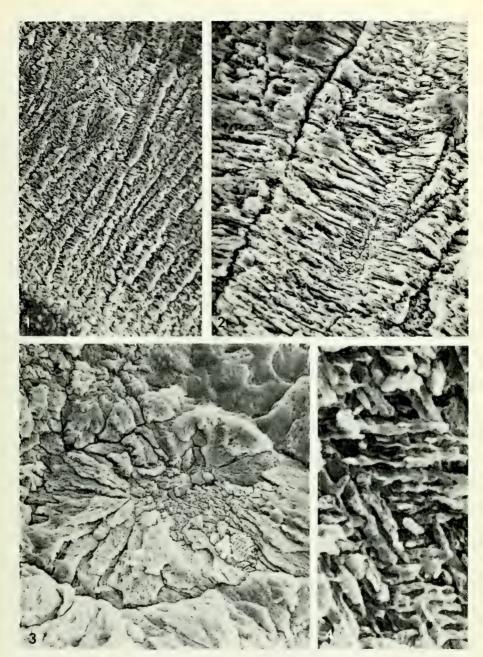
All figures are scanning electron-micrographs

Fig. 1—Polished, etched, radial section of the outer prismatic layer of *Panopea zeylandica*. Note the lack of a distinct interprismatic protein wall and the irregular orientation. ×650.

FIG. 2. As Fig. 1 but a detail of an individual prism showing its construction from nearly horizontal, platy crystals. ×1,200.

Fig. 3. Tangential section through a prism such as Fig 2 showing that the prism is constituted from platy crystallites which radiate from a central axis. ×1,300.

Fig. 4. Polished, etched, radial section of the inner "homogeneous" layer of **Panopea zeylandica** showing that at high magnifications it is made up of very fine complex crossed-lamellar structure. ×6,500.



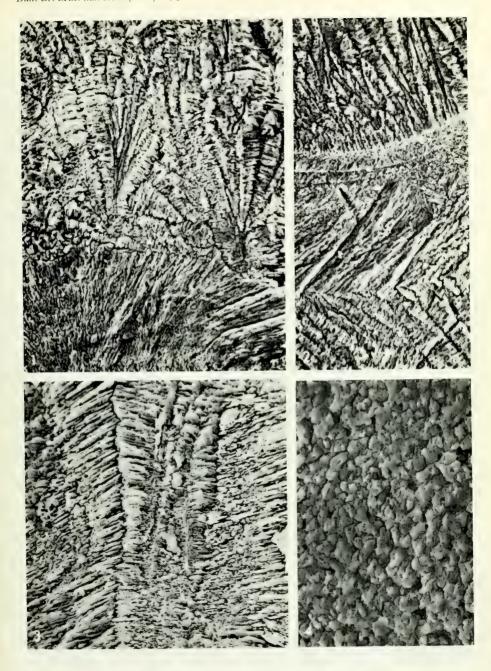
All figures are scanning electron-micrographs

Fig. 1.—Polished, etched, radial section of **Zirfaea crispata** showing the outer layer (bottom left) consisting of elongate granules and the middle crossed-lamellar layer (top right).——500.

Fig. 2. Detail of the outer layer of Zirfaea crispata; heavily etched. XI,400.

Fig. 3. Radial section (polished and etched) of the outer crossed-lamellar layer of **Teredo** navalis and the sharp ridges produced from this structure. ×260.

Fig. 4. Polished, heavily etched radial section of the middle crossed-lamellar layer of *Teredo navalis*. ×1,400.



All figures are scanning electron-micrographs

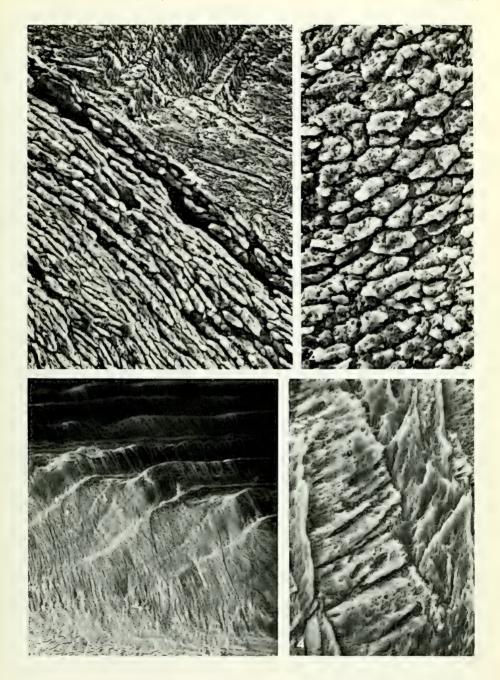
Fig. 1—Radial section (polished and etched) of *Barnea candida* showing the outer prismatic layer (top half) and a "shoot" of the middle crossed-lamellar layer (see Text-fig. 28)—The prisms are often, as shown arranged in radiating groups.—×850.

Fig. 2. As above, showing a "shoot" of the middle crossed-lamellar layer sandwiched between

outer prismatic layer. ×850.

Fig. 3. Detail of the outer prismatic layer of **Pholas dactylus** (compare with Plate 9, fig. 2 of prisms in *Panopea*). ×1,100.

Fig. 4. Polished, etched, section of the outer grey homogeneous layer of *Mya truncata* illustrating the formation from irregular granular crystals. ×1,200.



All figures are scanning electron-micrographs of Pholadomya candida.

Fig. 1. Fractured radial section showing the outer simple prismatic layer (top), the middle nacreous layer, pallial myostracum, and an inner layer, consisting initially of nacre and then thick sheets of myostracal prisms. $\times 240$.

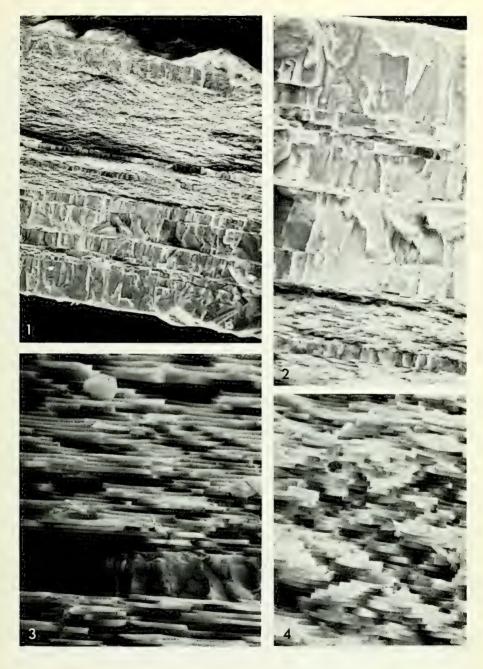
Fig. 2. Detail of the inner layer showing the sheets of myostracal prisms separated by very

thin sheets of nacre (interior of shell towards top of picture). ×600.

Fig. 3. Inner nacreous layer showing sheets of nacre crystals by a sheet of myostracal

prisms. ×2,400.

Fig. 4. Middle nacreous layer, compare the short bent crystals with the step-like alignment with the more regular flat sheets of larger crystals of the nacre of the inner layer in Fig. 3. × 2,400.



All figures on this plate are scanning electron-micrographs

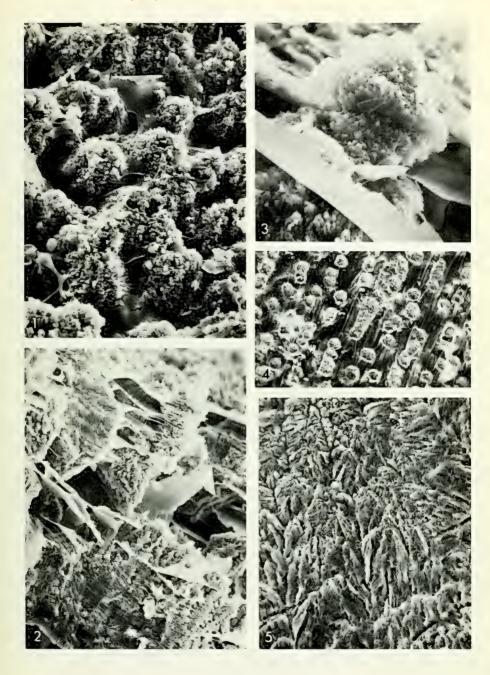
Fig. 1 Thracia phaseolina, inner surface of the outer shell layer showing individual spherulites separated by periostracum. ×1,100.

Fig. 2. Fractured section of the outer layer of *Thracia phaseolina* showing growing spherulites separated by sheets of periostracum. Inner shell surface to top right corner. < 800.

Fig. 3. As Fig. 2 but showing detail of growing spherulite on the inner shell surface. \times 3,200.

Fig. 4. Outer shell surface of **Thracia phaseolina** showing spherulites projecting through the periostracum. $\times 260$.

Fig. 5. Polished, etched, radial section of the outer prismatic layer of *Euciroa eburnea* showing how the prisms are made up of radiating needle-like crystallites. Note the lack of sharp boundaries between prisms. ×625.



All figures are scanning electron-micrographs

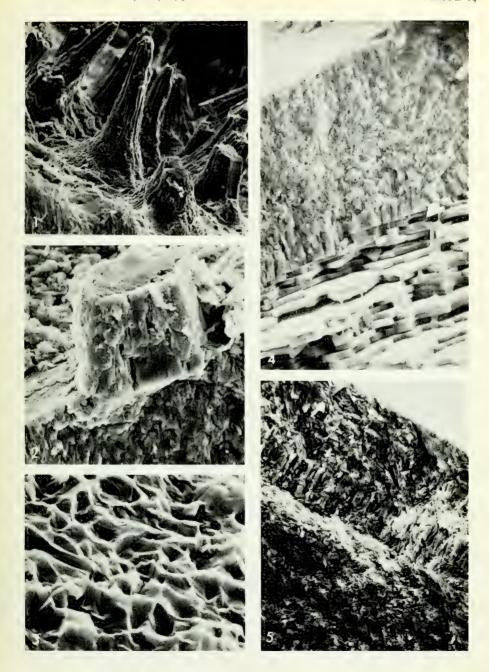
Fig. 1. Spines on the outer shell surface of Euciroa eburnea. ×220.

Fig. 2. Fractured section of the outer layer of **Poromya granulata** showing a section through a surface granule. $\times 1,100$

Fig. 3. Inner shell surface of the inner homogeneous layer of *Cuspidaria cuspidata*, ×6.600.

Fig. 4. Fractured section of the outer homogeneous layer and middle nacreous layer of **Poromya granulata.** ×1,100.

Fig. 5. Fractured section of *Cuspidaria cuspidaria* showing the outer homogeneous layer (bottom) and the inner layer resembling complex crossed-lamellar layer separated by a prismatic pallial myostracum. ×800.



All figures are scanning electron-micrographs of Penicillus sp.

Fig. 1 Inner surface of nacreous layer. ×2,300.

Fig. 2 Fractured section of nacreous layer of valves showing sheet nacre. ×2,400. Fig. 3 Fractured section of the tube showing the flat platy crystallites 2,400.

Fig. 4. As Fig. 3 but showing the stacks of platy crystallites. X1,200.

Fig. 5. Surface granules, covered by periostracum on the outside of the true valves. The granules are arranged in rows which radiate from the umbo. $\times r$,300.













A LIST OF SUPPLEMENTS TO THE ZOOLOGICAL SERIES OF THE BULLETIN OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

 KAY, E. ALISON. Marine Molluscs in the Cuming Collection British Museum (Natural History) described by William Harper Pease. Pp. 96; 14 Plates. 1965. (Out of Print.) £3.75.

2. WHITEHEAD, P. J. P. The Clupeoid Fishes described by Lacepede, Cuvier and

Valenciennes. Pp. 180; 11 Plates, 15 Text-figures. 1967. £4.

3. TAYLOR, J. D., KENNEDY, W. J. & HALL, A. The Shell Structure and Mineralogy of the Bivalvia. Introduction. Nuculacea-Trigonacea. Pp. 125; 29 Plates, 77 Text-figures. 1969. £4.50.

4. HAYNES, J. R. Cardigan Bay recent Foraminifera (Cruises of the R.V. Antur)

1962-1964. £10.80.



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The page numbers of the principal references and the new taxonomic names are printed in **bold** type.

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